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# AUSTRALIA

ITS

## RISE, PROGRESS, AND PRESENT CONDITION

BY

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## P R E F A C E.

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THE present volume consists chiefly of the articles Australasia and Australia of the "Encyclopædia Britannica." These articles have been revised or rewritten, so as to bring down to the present time the information upon this eventful part of our empire. This circumstance explains the particular form in which the subject is cast. Although not the usual mode of treating a historical subject, it is yet a mode perhaps almost a necessity in describing colonies, whose fast young life, if one may so speak, quickly obliterates the past in the tumult and progress of the present, and confines the interest almost to the particulars of the last year, if not even of the last mail. This more recent information is here given by way of an introduction, in a collective view of the whole subject. To make room for this introductory sketch, the former articles upon each separate colony have been considerably curtailed, so as to dispense with what has already, even in their brief span of history, ceased to be of general interest. These articles have been revised and continued with the more recent statistics

and other information pertaining to each. In particular, the article on Victoria, the colony that has become most prominent by its development, both political and commercial, which article was lately entirely rewritten by the present author, has been again revised, and partly rewritten; while that on South Australia has been amended by a gentleman lately a distinguished resident of that colony. The Supplement is a paper which the author prepared for the late meeting at Manchester of the British Association, but at which he was unable to be present.

But events at the antipodes have a rapid succession. This is remarkably the case since the inauguration of self-government. The new system has everywhere stimulated the colonists, who are alternately enveloped in the dust of ceaseless material progress, and immersed in the prominent public questions of the hour, in which every class and individual feels an untiring interest. Thus, while the book has been passing the printers, there is almost a fresh history to tell, and we must expand our Preface in order to tell it.

The picture is highly diversified, and a bright sun and genial atmosphere, that pertain to most of its ample area, are simultaneously enjoyed by widely opposite conditions of humanity. We were dismissed from a very edifying scene of religious, moral, and industrial attainment in the New Hebrides Islands (pp. 19-21), but only to reopen the drama in gloom and despair. Erromanga is once more infamous. The Christian missionaries, Mr and Mrs Gordon, were barbarously murdered there in May last. The old

## PREFACE.

suspicion of the natives, that the infectious diseases that appeared amongst them had been purposely introduced by the white people, had once more infuriated their minds, and apparently been the cause of this sad event. They were particularly aroused at the time, as the small-pox, introduced from Sydney by way of New Caledonia, had made frightful havoc amongst them.

From one barbarous scene we pass to another immeasurably less excusable. It is this time the civilised who are assaulting those they account savages. The riots at Lambing Flat, a gold-field near Yass in the southern part of New South Wales, where the colonists combined to expel the Chinese, have been of a most shocking and disgraceful character. The government dispatched 200 military with some pieces of artillery to the scene. The miners had formed a league for self-protection, and petitioned the authorities for the expulsion of the Chinese, "protection to native industry," and "the promulgation of the word of God"! Quiet was soon after restored, and the poor Chinese ventured to return to their labours. Several months after, however, namely, on Sunday, 30th June last, another and more dreadful outbreak took place. A large body attacked the Chinese, and drove them off with the greatest violence and brutality, assaulting them with arms, cutting off or tearing away their tails, and burning and destroying their tents and property. After an ineffectual resistance by the police, the military again occupied the ground. A number of the rioters were arrested and brought to trial, but

were acquitted by the juries upon imperfect evidence. "The Chinese question" is once more being strongly debated in the legislature of the colony, with the probable result, as before, that the democratic Assembly, sympathising with the popular antipathies to a large admixture of the Chinese, will pass measures to restrict or prevent their immigration, which measures the Council or upper house will refuse to pass (p. 34).

In New Zealand, while the north has been disconcerted by the spreading disaffection of the native races, the south has been alive with energy and tumult by the discovery of a rich gold-field. Regarding the Native difficulty, the colonial legislature had expressed its loyalty to the Queen, and the desire to put down any native-king movement among the aborigines. A new ministry, composed of Mr Fox and others, who had opposed the war, and who were inclined to some extent to justify the natives, had come into office. They had declared their policy, which, however, would be firm in opposing the natives if they persisted in a hostile attitude. The approaches towards a peace made in March had not proved either permanent or general on the natives' part. But they had ceased offensive operations, as they were awaiting, with some degree of confidence, the arrival of their former and popular governor, Sir George Grey. They still, however, cherished the king movement, and the maintenance of a distinct nationality, and they kept up a kind of state around the young king they had selected. Meanwhile, General Cameron, with 7000 military, was engaged in clearing roads through the dense bush,

the safe and favourite retreat of his opponents, but a process which these latter regarded with the greatest dislike (pp. 24-32).

Mr Macdougall Stuart, who may well be called the great Australian traveller, and who with a rapidity and facility hitherto unknown seems to perambulate this great territory, had returned to Adelaide in September (pp. 8-12), himself and party in excellent health, and with the loss of but four out of fifty horses. He had not, however, even this time, quite traversed the country from sea to sea, although he had reached a point within only ninety miles of the shores of Carpentaria. His farthest north had been 17° S. Lat., and 133° E. Long., whence he had endeavoured to reach the Camfield, a branch of the Victoria River explored by Gregory. A dense forest, however, had baffled his repeated efforts, and he was compelled to return when his stock of provisions threatened to run short. Traversing a vast area of country, he had passed many arid tracts, but they were diversified with much fine land, some of which called forth a glowing description. An auriferous region, too, was reported to have been met with. The non-completion, by so small a proportion, of the great feat of crossing the Australian continent was a disappointment to the colony; and the government, with laudable ambition, intended, it was said, to convey their intrepid traveller by sea to the other side, whence he might with fewer impediments surmount the remainder of his late journey.

The expedition from the colony of Victoria bent



on the same object as Mr Stuart, and which, with its camels, &c., we described as so completely fitted out for the journey, came off indeed more unfortunately than in being merely outstripped by its active rival. The route selected involved a journey of some hundreds of miles through an inhospitable country between Victoria and Cooper's Creek ere the business of discovery began, and the party was already disabled and broken up before its proper work had been entered on. One portion, however, pushed forward, and has not since returned. Victoria, South Australia, and Queensland have each despatched expeditions in aid of the missing travellers. In September word was received in Adelaide from a native, to the effect that two white men, probably of this party, had reached the River Barcoo, accompanied by two camels. They were in a naked and very destitute condition, and were subsisting on fish caught by nets made of grass. Some natives who surrounded them were, however, restrained by fear of their strange-looking quadrupeds.

The response to the Imperial invitation for a simultaneous census has been very generally responded to, and the populations for 7th April of this year have been taken respectively in New South Wales, Queensland, Victoria, South Australia, and Tasmania. In the case of South Australia, this expensive process had been gone through only the previous year. The united populations of the entire group for that date is probably 1,240,000, exclusive of the aborigines, who may amount, including all Australia, to 250,000 more.

Another Imperial invitation, namely, that regarding the Great Exhibition of 1862, will also be worthily responded to. All these colonies will be exhibitors, their respective legislatures having freely voted the requisite funds. There seemed everywhere elaborate preparation, and the variety of the products will probably excite surprise at the attainments of these young communities. Taking the case of Victoria, which has already voted L.5000 to the cause, with the probability of a like further sum, a specially appointed agent had successfully traversed the colony with the view of informing and stimulating the colonists. A preliminary exhibition is to be held in Melbourne of all articles of colonial production that are to be sent to London. The exhibition promises to be of a most varied character, including, on the one hand, specimens of Australian wool, wine, wheat, colonial Stilton, &c., with gold and other minerals; and, on the other, such unlooked-for articles as pianos and railway-carriage models.

From New South Wales there is to be a new subject of exhibition, which has latterly attracted the attention, and excited the hopes of the colony, namely, the alpaca. Mr Ledger, whose successful transport to the colony of a large flock of alpacas and llamas seems to have been the cause of at length inducing the Peruvian Government to remove the restrictions long placed on the exportation of these animals, has been variously experimenting on the effects of cross-breeding between the two kinds. Seven specimens have been selected, killed, and stuffed, in order to be

forwarded to the Exhibition. The flesh of these selections, which was pronounced excellent, was distributed to distinguished colonial tables, in order to give an introductory acquaintance with an article of diet that is probably ere long to be much more plentiful, as well as more known. The flock has thriven so well in its new home, that one object with regard to the Exhibition is to display specimens, which, as to both fat and fleece, are not, perhaps, to be equalled even in South America itself. Another object is to show the success in breeding pure alpacas from crosses between the alpaca and llama,—a result not admitted as possible by the most eminent naturalists.

The lively pace of the new colony of Queensland continues (p. 36). The year 1860 gave a revenue of L.178,589, estimated to reach only L.160,000. The imports were L.742,023, and exports L.523,476, including chiefly wool of the weight of 5,007,167 lbs. The requirements of Lancashire are likely to create a large cultivation of cotton; and the colony, by means of special agents, was actively promoting emigration, not merely from this country, but also from Germany and other parts of Europe.

West Australia, too, shows progress. It is, however, under different auspices. Upon its own invitation some years ago the colony was made a depôt for convicts, about the time that the Eastern settlements were combining to reject this distinction from their borders. These latter would have preferred a still more distant removal of an old and serious evil than to West Australia; and, accordingly, the Aus-

tralian Association in this country petitioned Parliament, on the late occasion of the sitting of Mr Childers' Committee on Transportation, that the transmission of convicts might cease as regarded any part of Australia. The West Australian interest, however, are prompt with a counter petition. They protest against discontinuance thus early, ere the colony, after opening its society to criminals, has had the full benefit of their labour, and of Imperial expenditure. They consider the evils alluded to by the Eastern colonies as greatly exaggerated, and that the cost of the Imperial Government appears unfairly heavy, as it includes large items for first outfit. It is suggested, also, that complaints may be obviated by restricting "conditional pardons" to West Australia.

The last fourteen years, comprehending the great gold discoveries of our day, have given to our language the word "prospecting," which implies the restless ransacking of the miner throughout the spacious lottery of an auriferous country. And so with the word "progress," which, although not a modern creation, is yet threatened with a special appropriation by our colonies. It expresses the hard facts of the purely material character—the "go-ahead" of the Americans—embodying the imports, the exports, the revenue, the immigration, the population, which all are, or ought to be, more to-day than they were yesterday. And so they usually are in the busy hives of our colonies, where this constant advance of these elements and foundations of national attainments impart the great stimulus to colonial life, and are the

fair amends for the smaller scale and the ruder aspects as compared with the mother country.

All the more marked, therefore, is the continued depression in one of these colonies, the most prominent of all for its previous unprecedented progress and the proportions of its commerce. But in truth the colony of Victoria, like an over-inflated balloon, has been in active collapse for several past years, and possibly, even with its comparatively shrunken appearance, has not yet adjusted its high pressure to the ordinary pitch of the surrounding atmosphere. The public revenues, imports and exports, and the market valuation of colonial property, for the years 1853 and 1854, had all attained to figures which have never been equalled since. And still each year shows an almost methodical diminution. We have alluded to the remarkable falling off in the yield of gold (pp. 47, 57, &c.). For this year, 1861, the value of the export is estimated at only L.7,200,000. To use the disparaging "only" with regard to such a sum as representing one among the export articles of a young settlement with but half a million of people, would be more than unreasonable, but for the fact that the amount in question is less by L.1,425,000 than that of the year preceding, and less by nearly L.5,000,000 than that of 1856. And so with the public revenues and the real estate, which seem to be decreasing in amount and in value just as the contributing and occupying public are increasing in numbers, and in industrial and wealth-creating strength.

But an analysis of this account is not unsatisfac-

tory. The great proportion of revenue diminution of late has been due to a falling off in proceeds of land sales, during an impending great change in the land laws. There has been also, of course, a falling off in gold export duty, in consequence of the diminishing yield of gold. The remainder of the diminution account is due to reduced customs receipts, arising from a correspondingly reduced consumption of alcoholic drinks. For its imbibing powers in this latter respect the colony was as much a wonder some years ago as for its outpouring of gold. Melbourne, with half its present population, consumed twice the quantity of brandy it is now addicted to, and more than was consumed in all London. In these days of too extravagant joviality, the public-house was the chief highway to fortune, and the "publican interest" the overshadowing influence of the land. One retired and wealthy member of the body has been no less than five times Mayor of Melbourne, a distinction that casts into the shade even the honours of the immortal Whittington. The colony is not yet perhaps meritoriously high in the ranks of temperance, notwithstanding that free drinking fountains, after the home example, sparkle attractively in the bright sunshine at the corners of many streets; but the gradual passing away of these extravagant excesses of the past is a real gain to Victoria. The following particulars confirm these positions :—

## COLONY OF VICTORIA.

Year ended.	Total Revenue.	Land Sales.	Duties received on		
			Spirits, Wines, and Beer.	Tobacco and Opium.	Tea and Coffee.
	L.	L.	L.	L.	L.
Dec. 31, 1859.	8,257,724	816,521	865,884	198,990	133,771
Dec. 31, 1860.	8,006,326	678,505	779,081	191,841	144,519
June 30, 1860.	8,287,506	908,742	811,882	199,121	142,102
June 30, 1861.	8,059,125	698,047	789,635	194,750	139,060

On sugar there is a reduction; but as that article is largely used in brewing, it is of uncertain testimony.

In the colony it is well known that the decrease in the gold is simultaneous with a decrease in the number of miners actually at work. Large towns have already arisen in the gold districts, which send forth their daily newspapers, as well as their daily stage-coach, a conveyance that is already being replaced by the railway express; while, in the vicinity of these busy centres, the spade and plough are in almost as universal activity as the miner's pick and shovel. The following comparative view places the diminution in the yield of gold in a more satisfactory position:—

	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
	L.	L.	L.	L.	L.	L.
Gold	21,222,067	18,227,591	18,127,227	9,122,067	8,624,900	7,300,000
	21,222,067	17,920,000	18,000,000	8,000,000	800,777	410,922

This explains how the heavy consignments of oats and butter have, for a year or two past, been so ruinous to shippers from this side. The colonial supplies have been increasingly adequate. Hard times are the spur of industry, as well as the parent of a requisite degree of frugality. A habitable mansion can now be had at Melbourne for L.50 a year, instead of L.300; and if we would compliment a friend, a turkey will cost but 8s., in place of L.3.

But if on any theories, economic or otherwise, we are to regret the reduced yield of gold in Victoria, we may turn with hope to other and adjacent places. The quantity from New South Wales has been steadily increasing, so that from half a million sterling at first, it will this year probably attain to above a million and a half. More exciting, as well as more novel, are the accounts of the two last mails from New Zealand, where even the vexatious and deplorable native war has lost some of its absorbing interest in the excitement of the general rush to the new Otago gold-field. As we read of the escorts conveying half a ton of gold into the village capital of Dunedin, we recall similar scenes in the early gold-mining experience of Melbourne, where, ten years previously, the legislative debates were for a moment suspended, as the word was passed round that a ton weight of the precious metal had just rumbled past the door of the Chamber, on its way from Mount Alexander to the colonial treasury. The new discovery is at Tuapeka, fifty

first announced only in the middle of this year. In



August and September 6000 persons were reported to be at work, and the following escort missions to Dunedin show very appreciable results : 21st August, 5066 oz. ; 4th September, 7750 oz. ; 18th September, 11,181 oz. By the end of September Melbourne alone had transmitted 10,000 persons to Otago, whose departure, with no inconsiderable money capital, had still further depressed Victorian mercantile affairs.

We have alluded to Australian tariffs, their simple character, and generally their free-trade tendency (pp. 48, 49). Subsequent events, however, are less favourable to this condition. In New South Wales the cry of "Protection to native industry" has been repeatedly raised outside of Parliament, but in Victoria already it has proceeded, with anticipated triumph, from the inside ; and, what is still more unexpected, the vice-regal speech, at the opening of the new parliamentary session in August of this year, has given the subject a favourable mention. The Governor's speech on that occasion is indeed remarkable, even in the race of colonial political developments, for the extent of change it proposes in existing systems.

In the first place, a plan is to be adopted of permitting occupation of any waste lands by the issue of a simple license to such persons as purposed to settle upon and cultivate to the extent of not less than 160 acres, and at a charge of 2s. 6d. per acre yearly.

In the next place, it is intimated that the ministry think favourably of the principle of "Protection," partly with the view of increasing the revenue by

increased customs' duties, and partly to give the "incidental advantages" to home industries, by directing the taxation of imports to those articles that competed with home production.

The third subject of exciting interest was the payment of members of the legislature, which was alluded to as a necessary means of ensuring the due performance of the public business.

Another subject, perhaps the most important of all, was the necessity of a change in the constitution of the Council, or Upper House, which, during all the successive democratic developments in the restless arena below, had remained unchanged from its first projected existence, seven years before, at the hands of the expiring regime of the past.

Other prospective measures are brought to view at a lively pace. There is to be a reduction in the export duty on gold, and an encouragement to colonial distillation by the levy of a smaller duty on its produce than upon imported spirits. The simplifying processes of the "Torrens Real Property Transfer Act," originated and practised for some time in South Australia, are to be introduced. There is to be a bill to do away with State aid to religion; and one more attempt to substitute one Education Board for the present dual and antagonistic system of National and Denominational, the object of the new measure being both economy and the securing a sound secular education.

To pass opinions on these various and contentious questions may, at least, be a lively mode of convey-

ing to the reader some information as to their bearings and prospects. No vice-regal entertainment in these parts ever presented to its criticising guests such a course of great dishes, whether well cooked or not, or whether the full contents of each were adequately described, or were left just as well known otherwise by the party phraseology and watchwords. Seated at the safe distance of a semi-circumference of the globe, one may quietly revolve subjects that make a hotbed of excitement on the spot.

Perhaps, for the most part, these projects are but suitable to the conditions of the colonial case. The State aid has been repeatedly doomed by large majorities of the Assembly, as well as by the narrowness and precarious character of the vote of the other House, that has still retained "the bone of contention." The Education question is a difficulty, in the main, between the lay public, tending by the circumstances that surround them to a fraternal liberality, and the varied body of their clergy, who, by habit, by instinct, and by religious principle, are wedded to the separative well-known Denominational, and opposed to the National system. The diminishing remuneration for mining labour no longer warrants the gold export duty, so soon as the revenue can spare the considerable deficit; and the revenue ought to spare it, for L.3,000,000 is far too extravagant an annual expenditure for a young colony of half a million people, and would never have been required if it had not been but too easily obtained. The *Torrens Act* will prove invaluable to every intending

landed proprietor (which in a colony means, we suppose, the whole public), provided his "legal adviser," still, no doubt, a necessity of society, does not kick at such profane road-making through his peculiar wilderness. The difficulty of these triumphs of simplicity has already appeared in South Australia itself.

The Distillation question brings us to protection, for we presume there is more involved than a just equivalent in duty for the disadvantage in using duty-paid sugar. We may accredit his Excellency, however, for his hesitation; and would fain hope that, when he speaks of the "incidental advantages" of the protective system, he has delivered the note as struck by his ministry. There is, too, a reported split in the protectionist camp itself, as to the propriety of taxing "the food of the people." But in what other category stand the shoes, the clothes, the furniture, the vehicles of the people? The high wages and prosperity usual to young settlements that have heretofore enjoyed the free disposal of their labour-power, will be found to entail a very high protection. To give the forced vocation the customary profit, may require several times that profit to be first sunk in protection. For consistency, therefore, Victoria must in future, if protection arguments are to be the rule, construct all her highways over swamps instead of firm ground. A boundless labour-field is thus created, as the colony enjoys the advantage of constructing not merely the twelve inches or so above the surface, but also that negative space of a yard or thereby that exists below it. And the gold is thus kept circu-

lating within the colony, by which, no doubt, it is found to be increased at the end of its journey. M. Bastiat, the celebrated French economist, proposed to the great wax-taper interest of his country, that a legislative enactment should be procured for excluding from the public the vexatious light of the sun, the great enemy of the wax-light vocation. Free trade in light, he urged, if it was not the ruin of a great national interest, at least prevented its assuming those colossal dimensions, and that beneficent power of employing labour, that would result from and justify the proposed course.

Australia has long suffered from a theoretical mistake of fixing far too high a price for its waste lands. During several years, in the height of the gold mania, that evil was practically annihilated, when a pound sterling was as readily acquired and as lightly parted with as five shillings in more usual circumstances. Australia might then by this accident have shown what common sense principles might have done for her at an earlier period. But the squatting occupation, and the political dominancy of that strong interest under the old regime, lost the colony opportunities that have never returned. Lapse of time, vested interests, and a conservatism of feeling, laudable perhaps, even if mistaken, have still saved the minimum price of 20s. an acre; but this self-denying ordinance entails all manner of palliative attempts that will still leave the main obstacle intact, and yet adequately prompt settlement over the wide and almost empty areas of the public domain. The soil

of this great domain is a vast and still almost a dormant treasure, not less real than those other treasures of auriferous Victoria that are possibly beneath, but with this difference, that the first is known and within reach, and the other is not. The proposed licensing system is one among others of these bye-ways to get into the great treasury. It is the latest and severest innovation upon the now dethroned squatting body, who, as occupying, in their light pastoral way at least, every foot of available crown territory not otherwise held, have their toes trampled upon by every such experiment, and instinctively question and repel these successive encroachments. The present procedure savours indeed of a reactionary vengeance upon more than the minimum price of the soil; for it totally ignores the squatting occupants, not only in the contentious category of their rights, but even in their very existence.

"Payment of Members" is a cry that has been acquiring strength with democratic progress. The subject is not favourably regarded here. But there is a certain inapplicability of the colonial case to those ideas of high gentility associated with a British Parliament, and to the "enough and to spare" of means and leisure in home as compared with colonial society. As a member is not, like a minister, supposed to devote all his time to public affairs, so he should not be awarded a salary for maintenance. It is not desirable that, as a rule, a trade should be made of politics. But even membership involves a serious invasion upon one's time and thoughts, to say nothing of other ex-

penses ; and a reasonable compensation for each day of such sacrifices is not unsuited to the practical society of a colony. The occasion, too, may tend otherwise to use. If by contentious rivalry the public business, for which one hundred days may be considered more than ample, is protracted over twice that space, the pay may be made conterminous only with the necessary time. As the pay should be due, day by day, upon attendance only, so it may be conditional also upon punctuality. In short, the proposed system may give appreciable aid in certain reformatory movements tending to a better "despatch of business." If the extra zest which the fee ever gives to a lawyer, a director, or an arbitrator, be instilled into the common nature of a colonial M.P., the first hundred days will gradually come to have that increased consideration that will leave nothing in the balance for the second. Eventually it may happily come that the day succeeding the last of the pay-days will be the dawn of a genuine holiday season, as decisive as that of our own 12th of August, whose annual approach empties with such magical rapidity the legislative benches at Westminster.

The reconstitution of the Upper House is perhaps the gravest of all these questions. A House that will act conservatively, without at the same time acting as a mere opponent to its brother, is the great requirement. In New South Wales and Victoria the latter relationship has long been the most conspicuous ; and, after considerable mutual wrangling in each colony, their respective publics manifest a

desire for some reconstitution of their senate. New South Wales is already immersed in this question, and the solution lies between a continuance of the present crown nomination system, and one by some form of popular election. In Victoria the Council is elective, but under a highly restrictive franchise. We have already some remarks on this subject (pp. 81, 82). The colonial case, in all political bearings, differs materially from that of this country, and chiefly in this respect, that the masses of a colony are not under the same control of the educated and employing class that we are accustomed to here, and that gives an appreciably higher polish and more tranquil aspect to the social picture. The large aggregations of the towns and gold-fields of New South Wales and Victoria impart strength to the "inevitable democracy." In this respect these two colonies differ from the agricultural and pastoral tendencies of Tasmania, Queensland, and New Zealand, and these colonies may still be long exempted from the democratic fervour—until, at least, they possess cities of 50,000 souls. Without the acceptance of these masses, a colonial administration under the present self-government seems impossible; and those who think otherwise probably rest upon a former experience under a system that was maintained only by the power of an external authority,—an authority that has now ceased to interfere. We cannot now return upon the past, and to have much longer upheld that regime would have endangered the Imperial relations. There is no cry for separation from the



mother country now; but prior to the era of self-government, the outbreaks of dissatisfaction not unfrequently exploded in that direction.

Whether anything short of manhood suffrage in Victoria and New South Wales would have met adequately the colonial case, might be fair matter of opinion. At the critical time, however, nothing else feasible or acceptable was projected. But the political defects of a colonial society arise from absence of traditionary restraints, and the approach to an equality in the condition and independence of all the people. All are ardent politicians; and this importance of the individual is, in a measure, the weakness of the central authority. The resulting legislation and government, therefore, will not always escape being unsteady and undignified, as well as hasty and erroneous in policy, to an extent not experienced in the better reined systems of monarchical administration. But withal it is the most suitable to the colonial case. It is more so in many respects than a non-popular upper-class legislature. Such a body is, in such a society, as seldom betrayed into the toilsome exercise of rowdyism, as it is into the vulgarity of earnestness. If likely to be more correct in some of the higher economical principles, it is, on the other hand, exclusive in its views, indisposed to the interminable toils of colonial legislation, and inaccessible to the masses around, who, in a sense not realised in old societies, are the visible pillars of the community.

We cannot institute nobility in these colonial societies. The attempt was made in New South

Wales some time ago, and is not likely to be renewed. Subsequently, in Victoria, a worthy old legislator, since dead, who had moved that Her Majesty be requested to send out one of her royal family to be king of Australia, received a gentle but effectual quietus that has indefinitely shelved the subject. But all this has no association with disloyalty, although it may clearly show that Australian separation from this country, whenever that may come, means an inevitable Australian republic. These popular governments, proverbially under a loose rein, are no doubt exposed to unseemly positions, causing dissatisfaction and alienation of feeling even to their own subjects, and that occasionally of so sharp a character for the time being, as to convey the notion that some total change of political system might be permanently effected. These feelings, however, are but temporary, and they do not draw the people long from their normal sentiments. A nobility suddenly called up—a king placed upon an improvised throne upon any such emergency—would be like a ship upon a bank that an unusual tide has floated: for a moment it was indeed afloat, but the waters have ruthlessly left it, and are pertinacious in refusing to return.

The fair deduction from such premises seems to be, that an upper house will not be effective if it be the offshoot of either "Crown" nomination, as it is rather deceptively called in the case of a constitutionally or party governed country, or of popular election under any very restrictive franchise. We must look rather to restrictions involving some natural superiority.

The most conspicuous is age. It is conservatism in the most forbearing sense, and most of our ardent colonists will take a check at the hands of their fathers and elder brothers. The present antagonistic councils and assemblies have possibly not seldom acted as foils to goad each other into extreme courses, that might otherwise, perhaps, have been avoided.

It is a disadvantage, as regards the political and social aspects of these colonies, that at this distance we get almost solely opposition political views, and the exceptional social incidents. No one reads of the peace, plenty, and contentment of colonial life for ninety-nine out of a hundred days; but we all know, through fifty versions, of the rowdy incidents of the hundredth day, when some election, legislative or municipal, had roused nine-tenths of every body into unwonted excitement. We are apt to get here, also, only one side of questions; namely, the side of the moderate or conservative party for the time being, whose version of cases generally, and of their own case in particular, is not very much more trustworthy than the unrepresented but very opposite case that might have been set forth by the other side. The reasons, therefore, for what appear rash and intemperate changes and innovations are seldom fully given, although the "Let well alone" party are copious in defence of the *status quo*. The whole subject is acquiring great interest to this country, and we must wish Australia well through her trials and transitions.

## POSTSCRIPT

### ON THE CONSTITUTION OF THE COUNCIL OR UPPER HOUSE.

Assuming the elective principle, and dismissing the idea of any high property qualification, should there be any such qualification? This must mainly depend upon a judicious estimate of the views and temper of the public on the subject. We are all familiar with the good effects generally of some "stake in the hedge," and had there been some moderate qualification instituted at first, it might have survived into a permanent institution. There is, however, in the more democratic of our free Australian colonies a distrust of this ground of distinction in a political sense, and the Assembly has thus a perpetual handle by which to assert that it is the true Upper House, by representing, as it does, the whole people.

If, therefore, we cannot restrict the suffrage to the conservatism of wealth, let us claim for it the forbearance and experience of years. Is the colony extreme in democratic feeling, then let compromise take an extra step in this direction of age; and if thirty or thirty-five years are still inadequate, then restrict the important franchise and membership to forty. A duration of personal residence in the colony, such as to thoroughly identify with the place, is no unsuitable stipulation; nor that an intending member be reasonably independent in his means.

As to other points, perhaps minor in character, the whole colony thrown into one electoral district adds to

the weight of each member, and so of the collective body, while it still leaves some power to any considerable district to secure by concentration of voting any particular representative. Finally, let us have a small number, and a large proportionate quorum.

New South Wales started its free government with a nominated, Victoria with an elected council, the latter under a very exclusive property qualification, which was, to some excusable extent, the result of the extravagant ideas of the time as to the value of property, which was then perhaps (1854) five times higher than now. The Victorian arrangement in other respects, however, was suitable. It involved elections every two years for one-fifth part of the members, thereby affording the opportunity of a total change every ten years, while the House was independent of dissolution by the government. The only oversight was in not fixing a period for the first trial of this state machine. New South Wales and South Australia had more prudential foresight in this respect. And now Victoria must either tempt or coerce its council into the self-denying ordinance of confessing its own defects, and passing the bill for its own reform.

The merits and defects of such a "Council of Elders," as is here alluded to, as shown by its actual existence and proceedings, would be a subject of great interest, for the results might solve a difficulty of many impending democracies of the world.

WILLIAM WESTGARTH.

LONDON, 27th November 1861.

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# AUSTRALIA.

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## CHAPTER I.

### PRELIMINARY SKETCH OF AUSTRALASIA.

FAMILIAR as this name has latterly become to us by the daily and almost hourly recurring incidents of an extensive commerce and social intercourse, we are apt to forget how short an interval has elapsed since a region now so alive with the industry of our countrymen was all but wholly unknown to us. Only since the time of Cook have we even a definite geographical knowledge. Ninety years have only just rolled past since that time—the space of a single human life. Over the wide regions of primeval desolation or barbarism there are now seaports and incorporated cities, united by railways and electric telegraphs. Men who are yet scarcely past the period of youth, have chased the kangaroo and emeu through the open forest of gum trees where the city of Melbourne now stands; with 120,000 inhabitants, and an extent of commerce not inferior to that of the second order of European capitals. The six colonies of Eastern Australasia enjoy respectively an independent government, a privilege which their wealth and progress have already procured for them from the imperial administration. Their respective parliaments, each

on the home model, so far as imitable, have their two separate houses of legislation, and there is in each colony a resident representative of the Crown. There are no indications of a want of zest with the colonists for the labours and responsibilities of self-government; and if the local political parties appear mutually antagonistic, yet the whole are loyal to the imperial supremacy. The Australasian group may claim to rank as a section of primary interest and importance in the wide circuit of the British empire.

We propose to deal with our subject first in its collective aspect, and afterwards, with more detail, under the separate head of each colony, island, or country. In the collective view, our attention will be chiefly directed to the great and multifarious interests that are presenting themselves in the commercial, social, and political relations of the Australasian group of colonies, and which are especially inviting when we can rise above the narrow scene of each detached settlement, and fix our attention upon the relations or results of the larger area and the wider interests of the whole system. We must not, however, overlook some passing notice of extra colonial subjects. The opportunity will be convenient for bringing together, in their collective aspect, the occurrences of the last few years, the observations and discoveries in extra colonial territories, as well as the course of events within the colonial pale.

Australasia assumes the position of one of five great geographical divisions of the globe. With its central mainland of Australia, it comprises the conspicuous islands of New Guinea, Tasmania, and the New Zealand group, together with many smaller intermediate or adjacent islands. Restricted to the southern side of the equator, its boun-

## COLLECTIVE VIEW.

daries westwards exclude Amboyna, famous in early European commerce, the remarkable Arru Islands, and the far protruding eastern extremities of the Sunda chain. Thence expanding to the middle of the Indian Ocean, they embrace the isolated rocks of Amsterdam and St. Paul, but excluding Kerguelen's Land, although, for convenience, a description of that desolate and unclaimed region is inserted in this article. On the east the Fiji Islands are excluded, divergent alike in their situation and in the mixed characteristics of their population. The boundaries southwards run indefinitely into the Antarctic Ocean, but they do not include those regions towards the Southern Pole that have been but recently delineated, and are as yet but partially explored. Our associations with Australasia are not those of icebound coasts, or the dreary grandeur of eternal snow. The colonists of the extreme south of Tasmania and New Zealand are not indeed unfamiliar with some of the wintry experiences of their fatherland; but the pervading association is that of bright Italian skies, and of a genial temperature, which, if too relaxing, perhaps, over the larger area for producing the highest energies of mind and body, is yet grateful and attractive to the occupants of a new country, while unprovided with those amenities of an old civilisation that counterbalance a less genial clime.

We are accustomed to style our Australasian possessions "our antipodes," an expression not strictly correct. A straight line passing through the earth's centre to the opposite circumference from Greenwich, or even from any part of Great Britain or Ireland, would not emerge upon any portion of our Austral territory. The nearest approach to this distinction, if it may be so called, is made by the

little island to the south-west of New Zealand, which is on that account called Antipodes Island, and whose northern counterpart would be on the French coast, a little to the south-east of Cherbourg. New Zealand, in the same way, would overlie a part of Spain and Portugal, extending north-west into the ocean, and south across Gibraltar into Africa; while Australia would be found in the middle of the North Atlantic, occupying with a suggestive accuracy, that is not without other examples, the part that is destitute of land.

Some changes have been of late introduced in the designations of parts of Australasia, which we should here notice. The old term New Holland may now be regarded as supplanted by that happier and fitter one of Australia. New Holland, properly, comprised only the western section, that is now West Australia. The eastern or larger section, at first called New South Wales, may also be now considered to have forfeited its original name, excepting that restricted part of it around the first settlement of Sydney. This latter portion, now the self-governed colony of New South Wales, has been detached from its larger territory by the creation in 1834 of the colonial territory of South Australia on the westward, and by that of Queensland to the north in 1859. There is not now any officially designated North Australia since the abandonment of Port Essington on the one hand, and of the attempted penal settlement, some years since, at Port Curtis on the north-eastern coast. With the final abolition of transportation to Van Diemen's Land, that colony, with the view of burying the past, solicited and obtained from her Majesty the new name of Tasmania, which is accordingly substituted in the public records since the year 1853. The New Zea-

land constitution provides for the creation of provincial or sub-governments—a system which accords with the elongated form and extensive coast line of the group. Two such sub-governments, in addition to the six of older date, have been recently established, namely, Hawkes Bay, late a part of Wellington, on the north island, and Marlborough, late a part of Nelson, on the middle island. About the same time, the province of New Plymouth reassumed its original and far more tasteful and distinctive title of Taranaki; a name destined, however, to many unpleasant associations for its colonists, in connection with the sanguinary hostilities of 1860–61 with the aborigines.

The precise date of the earliest discovery of the great Terra Australis has never been satisfactorily laid down. The question is one of interest in proportion to the growing importance of the country. Ere long, the subject will be investigated by the Australian-born historian and antiquary. Hitherto the interest and research have been from the European and Home side. Mr R. H. Major, in his late volume, published by the Hakluyt Society, 1859, and in subsequent researches, throws some fresh light on the subject. He has traced an authenticated discovery to as early a period as 1601, which is five years preceding the date heretofore usually given. The discoverer was Mansel Godinho de Heredia, a Portuguese. It is highly probable, however, as Mr Major remarks, that the country was discovered by the Portuguese between the years 1511 and 1529, and all but certain that it was discovered before 1542. In these early days of maritime enterprise in the far East, associated as such adventure was with ideas of fabulous commercial advantages, an exclusiveness and secrecy

were more in fashion than at present. It seems likely that, long before any of these dates, Australia was known to the Chinese and other peoples of the east, having, more or less, pretension to civilisation.

Some new light has also lately been thrown upon two other places, in the same region of the world, although of somewhat inferior importance. These are the isolated islands of the Indian Ocean, New Amsterdam and St Paul, which have until within the last eight years been but imperfectly known. They were the subject of many wondrous tales, nor was it clearly known which of the rocks bore the one name, which the other. In consequence of the wreck of an English vessel upon one of them, the Admiralty were induced to order a survey, which was accomplished in the year 1853. Subsequently, in 1857, we have further interesting particulars from the expedition of the Austrian discovery-ship *Novara*. The expedition of 1853 was the occasion of the discovery at the city of Amsterdam of the original log-book of the distinguished Antonio Van Diemen, which showed that he, and not Vlaming, was the discoverer of these islands. Van Diemen saw both of them on 17th June 1633, or 63 years before Vlaming's visit. We now know that New Amsterdam is the more northern of the two, being in S. Lat.  $37^{\circ} 58' 30''$ , and E. Long. from Greenwich,  $77^{\circ} 34' 40''$ ; while St Paul, 42 miles apart, is in S. Lat.  $38^{\circ} 42' 55''$ , and E. Long.  $77^{\circ} 31' 18''$ . The former, the most remarkable of the two, is, at its highest elevation, 2784 feet above the sea-level. Warm springs and other features have led to the opinion that these rocks are of very recent volcanic production. This seems a probable view; but the accounts of smoking cre-

vices and other indications are now known to have been either mistakes or exaggerations. The Novara's expedition landed upon New Amsterdam on the 6th December 1857, and found it covered with impenetrably thick shrubs. The smoke alluded to by a previous adventuring party as volcanic, and so strong as to prevent their getting beyond the edge of the cliffs, seemed exactly reproduced by the Novara's expedition, by simply setting fire to some of this dense vegetation.

#### RECENT AUSTRALIAN DISCOVERY.

This variegated region, abounding in scientific problems and apparent anomalies to an extent that has become proverbial, nevertheless presents some features more or less in common, both as to its human races and its very peculiar animal and vegetable productions. The physical features, too, assume less of the marvellous or extra divergent character as they become more known to us, by that active and enlightened curiosity that is at length rapidly solving all the problems of this so lately mysterious part of the world. The great central territory of Australia has latterly been the object of chief interest. In alluding here to the exploratory expeditions of the last few years, which have helped so much to complete our knowledge of this country, it is pleasant to notice how the colonies themselves, as they acquire by their industry and progress adequate means for the purpose, are carrying out these expeditions, instead of their being accomplished as formerly, either in part or in whole, by the parent country. The centre of Australia has just been reached, and the entire country all but crossed



from sea to sea upon this central line of march, by an expedition fitted out by the private enterprise of South Australian colonists; and while we now write, two adequate expeditions, partly on the same liberal foundation, and partly by aid of the respective governments, have left South Australia and Victoria, with the purpose of more effectually accomplishing this interesting object. Already we know enough to enable us to entertain a much livelier hope of the vast central regions of Australia. Mr Stuart's expedition of 1860 assures us that this area is neither a waste of water, as was the earliest prevailing opinion, nor yet, still more unfavourably, a waste of sterility, as was latterly and very reasonably inferred from the observations of Stuart penetrating from the south, and of Gregory from the north-west and north-east.

Gregory's exploration of the Victoria River, north-west Australia, 1855-56, resulted in some disappointment, after the promise afforded by the appearance of the lower part of the stream. After a south-easterly bearing in ascending its course, it took finally a southerly direction; and after 300 miles, its source, or rather that of its dry bed, was found in a sterile desert. The lower part of the river, however, had a considerable volume, and, by a winding course, it watered a large area of country, much of which was good available land. At the mouth there was a good harbour with deep water. These favourable circumstances, and the admirable position for the commerce of the East Indies and Asia, have already attracted much attention, with reference to the founding in that locality of a new British colony.

Mr J. S. Wilson, the geologist to this expedition, reported

very favourably of the country. It was found to be generally well watered by rivers, some of which, as the Fitzroy, Adelaide, Alligator, and especially the Victoria, were navigable for shipping for some distance inland—the Victoria for upwards of 100 miles. Much of the country was luxuriantly grassed, and the climate, although tropical, seemed healthful for Europeans. The mean temperature of summer, November to March inclusive, was about  $79^{\circ}$  for the hour of 6 A.M., and  $95^{\circ}$  for 1 P.M. For June and July (winter) it was  $59^{\circ}$  and  $86^{\circ}$  respectively, and in June the thermometer recorded a minimum of  $47^{\circ}$ . The greatest rainfall, in common with tropical features elsewhere, was during the hottest months. Thus in the four months, November to February, rain fell on from one-half to two-thirds of the days of each month, while during the rest of the year there was comparatively little rain.

The Victoria of Mitchell (1846), which, with fine reaches of water, was found winding through a luxuriantly grassed country, far in the interior from the eastern coast, and pursuing mainly, as far as seen at that time, a westerly and northerly course, was inspiringly set down by its discoverer as the head waters of the other Victoria of the north-west coast. Gregory, however, in 1858, after returning from that region by an overland journey to New South Wales, succeeded in tracing also Mitchell's Victoria, and to quite another termination. As Kennedy had ascertained, who followed Mitchell, and explored it somewhat further, its course was southerly. Gregory, on this occasion, experienced those uncertainties of climate and country that are eminently Australian. The verdure that captivated Mitchell had disappeared, leaving only a desiccated waste.

The Victoria of Mitchell, or Barcoo, was followed into Cooper Creek of Sturt, thence, by Strzlecki Creek, into the great Lake Torrens basin and Spencer Gulf.

The centre of Australia had yet to be reached, although Sturt, in his arduous expedition 1844-45, had nearly attained it. The greater exploit, too, of traversing the vast territory from sea to sea, was yet unaccomplished, notwithstanding that so many thousands of enterprising and prosperous colonists occupied its coasts. Mr M'Dougal Stuart has at length all but taken away this reproach. During an expedition made in 1858 he had explored an extensive area for 300 miles to the north-west of Spencer Gulf, and had ascertained that a large proportion of the land he traversed was available for sheep pasture. The scenery was pleasantly diversified by lakes and creeks of salt and fresh water. That a country of this promising character, and not of the sterile kind that had been found more in a northerly direction, would be met with to the north-west, had been constantly asserted by Colonel Gawler, one of the early governors of South Australia, from observing that the wind when from this direction had not the parching qualities of the hot blast that came from the north.

Encouraged by this success, Stuart prepared for a more ambitious object. Starting with but two followers, in the month of March 1860, he penetrated to the centre of Australia, naming an adjacent hill Central Mount Stuart. Thence, after many difficulties, chiefly from want of water, he reached, in a northerly direction, about Lat. 18. 40. S., within 250 miles of the shores of Carpentaria. Here the country was good, and the difficulties of the past were probably at an end. But this was only to give place to others yet more insurmountable

to his small party. Considerable numbers of aborigines were met with, whose hostility became so determined, that there was no other course than retreat. Returning in safety to Adelaide in the following September, the government, with laudable promptitude, re-equipped Mr Stuart, who forthwith set out with an adequate force upon a second northern journey, to complete the triumph of his first adventurous exploit. Meanwhile, unaware of this successful excursion, a well-appointed party had started from the colony of Victoria with a similar object. This party, to the usual outfit, enjoyed the novel addition of a troop of camels, twenty-six in number, which the colonial government had a short time previously imported for domestication in Victoria. One object of a promptitude proverbially unusual in official quarters may readily be supposed to have been to enable Stuart to complete what he had so nearly effected—the crossing of the Australian territory—before the exploit could be accomplished by a rival party and a rival colony. These are not unpleasant or unprofitable rivalries. The chances seem all for the bold, experienced, and lightly-fitted South Australian, rather than for the ample appointments and measured cadence of his encumbered competitor. But, however that may be, the former must be considered as having already virtually won the palm. He permits us to hope that, when the vast solitudes he has explored become better known, an experienced bushman, with an ordinary outfit, may without great difficulty make his way even to the centre of Australia. That circumstance is important, with the view of making available to colonisation the country opened by Stuart.

Some of Mr Wilson's observations, alluded to above, are

important as explaining Mr Stuart's difficulties arising from want of water when he entered the tropical regions. He arrived during the cooler months of the year, when, as we have seen, there is but little rain-fall. In the cooler extra tropical climate of the colony he started from, the winter and spring seasons give usually the largest supplies of rain ; but the future traveller will do well to remember that these seasons are evidently the most precarious for his exertions in tropical Australia.

The Burdekin, discovered and named by Leichhardt (1844-5), is the most considerable of many secondary streams that debouch over 2000 miles of the eastern seaboard of Australia. In the interests of the young colony of Queensland, Mr G. E. Dalrymple, in 1859, made an overland exploration to examine the country watered by this river, and to trace the stream to its mouth. He succeeded in reaching a position from which the river could be inferred to enter the sea at Cape Cleveland, and not at Cape Upstart, as its discoverer supposed. Further progress was prevented by the persistent hostility of the aborigines, who were very numerous, and who bore in that region a well-favoured appearance as compared with those of other parts of Australia. A large area of country, of a promising character, was seen in the vicinities of the Burdekin, suitable alike for pasturage and the growth of cotton, sugar, and tobacco.

An expedition by sea in the following year (1860), under Mr J. W. Smith, R.N., was successful in finding the exit of the Burdekin, which proved, as supposed, to be in Cleveland Bay. Unfortunately, however, like so many other Australian rivers, a bar at the mouth closed the Burdekin to navigation. A little to the south, however, a harbour

was discovered, capacious, land-locked, and perfectly easy of access from without. It forms the inner or western side of Edgecumbe Bay, and was named Port Denison. It is described as being three miles in length by two miles in breadth and twenty-seven feet in depth, and is a valuable compensation to the future settlers of the country watered by the Burdekin. Port Denison is in 20° S. Lat., and already the pastoral settlements of Queensland reach that latitude, and a seaport has been laid out upon its shores.

## NATURAL HISTORY.

The facilities afforded by overspreading commerce have of late been the means of bringing great accessions to science; and these are the more important, as they are mostly connected with immediate practical results. We may form some notion as to how much there may yet be to discover by the surprises we are constantly receiving. The huge chimpanzee of New Guinea, for instance, is known to us only within the last fourteen years, although it approaches the nearest to man\* in its anatomical structure amongst the tailless apes. A dead sperm-whale, towed into Port Jackson in 1849, proved to be a species new at least to science, the *Catodon australis*. The length of the head was  $9\frac{1}{2}$  feet; and the entire skeleton,  $33\frac{1}{2}$  feet long, is preserved in the Sydney Museum. Another new cetacean has been since discovered by Mr Wall of Sydney, having characters intermediate between the Sperm and

\* The gorilla, so lately described to us by M. du Chaillu, in common with a land of other marvels in equatorial Africa, must now be installed in this position.

Black Fish,—rather leaning to the latter. It has been named by M'Leay *Euphysetes Grayii*. But the most remarkable member of this family is the Dugong, or Sea Cow, an herbivorous cetacean, regarded by Professor Owen as a distinct species, and, as far as yet known, peculiar to the coasts of North Australia, from Moreton Bay to Cape York. He named it *Halicore australis*. It frequents the shallow waters of the shore, feeding on the submarine grasses. The male is distinguished by two tusks. When full grown the Dugong is 10 to 15 feet in length, proportionately very bulky, and weighing as much as 8 to 10 cwts. The natives, who call it *Yungan*, use it as food; and its flesh is esteemed a delicacy even by the colonists. But the animal is likely, in an economic sense, to be most valued for its oil, which is used medicinally with the effect of cod-liver oil, and with the decided superiority of an agreeable flavour. Each full-grown specimen will yield 10 to 12 gallons of this oil.

The most interesting of recent discoveries in these regions, in a scientific point of view, is that of a new species of Cassowary from the Island of New Britain, named *Cassuaris Bennetti*, in honour of its discoverer, Dr Bennett, to whose recently published work we are indebted for most of the particulars of this scientific part of our subject. This bird was not known till 1857. It is one of a few surviving members of that remarkable family of large wingless birds that have left so many fossilized remains in New Zealand and Australia. The present subject furnishes an additional link to connect the extinct Moas of New Zealand with the living cassowaries. It has quite distinctive characters from the common cassowary, the more obvious of which

are its being smaller and shorter, and having much thicker legs. The massiveness of the leg bones is a feature in common with the extinct Moa. The new bird is 3 feet in height to the top of the back, and 5 feet when erect. The egg is  $5\frac{1}{2}$  by  $3\frac{1}{2}$  inches; the hue of a very pale buff, overspread with pale green corrugations. The specimen first obtained, a fine full-grown live male, was safely conveyed, in 1858, to the Zoological Gardens, London, and two younger birds, a male and a female, were added the year following.

Many new and useful species of the well known Kauri or New Zealand pine have been discovered within the last ten years. This striking and handsome tree, first met with 200 years ago at Amboyna, has now been found, in different varieties and species, in New Caledonia, the New Hebrides, and Queen Charlotte's Group, and also, several years ago, upon the Australian mainland, from north of Moreton Bay to the Burnett River, throughout 300 to 400 miles of coast country. In 1860 it was found in large forests still farther north, as far as the River Burdekin. In the year 1857, it was found in extensive growth in the Fiji Islands, where the timber is reported to be very valuable in commerce. Amidst the fine forest scenery of Great Fiji, there seem to be two distinct species of *Dammara*, one of which has two varieties, marked by considerable difference in their relative height. Most of these interesting trees flourish in great perfection in the Botanical Gardens of Sydney.

#### POPULATION, ABORIGINAL AND COLONIAL.

The aboriginal races, intervening in characteristics between the Malay and the Negro, present some features in common throughout Australasia. A connecting link more promising



to the future is the rapid colonisation of these remote but inviting regions, and the indications which they will soon almost everywhere present of industry and comfort, and a civilised government. Unhappily, it seems almost an unfailing law, that the prosperity of the last is the adversity and death of the first. The Tasmanian race, with certain distinctive characters of its own, and half a century ago numbering five thousand individuals, now survives in the precarious tenure of only fifteen lives. To the mortifying apprehension of a like approaching destiny to the more intelligent New Zealanders, may we in great measure attribute the savage warfare with which they have been opposing the progress of the colonists. The recent Report of the Legislative Council of Victoria (January 1860), and the missionary experiences of the Rev. W. Turner, afford some of the latest particulars of the Australasian races. They are connected in some respects by links indicative only of one common degradation; and the lowest position may be assigned to the Australian, for he is still savage, although the populations of New Zealand and the smaller islands to the northward have proved comparatively tractable to the influences of our civilisation and religion. They are all addicted more or less to cannibalism, and many to infanticide and to other cruel customs, some of which, however, have probably originated in the necessities of wandering and savage life. They are not without some meagre and diversified outline of religious system, which is still adequate to hold the individual under a sense of authority, and which, by the restraints and enjoinders, the hopes and the fears associated with it, imparts a constant impulse to existence. But our civilisation is too often to them an agency of utter

destruction. It demolishes an edifice, humble enough truly, but rebuilds nothing instead. The Australian savage, when he is surrounded by civilised man, has usually suffered a double degradation. He is not only dwarfed by the presence of a superior race, but he has fallen from the integrity even of barbaric life ; for low as is the platform of his civil and religious polity, it is still a platform appreciably higher than the zero of the ground.

The Victoria Legislative Report, in alluding to the causes of the decrease of the aborigines, speaks of habits of drunkenness as conspicuously destructive, in consequence of the exposed mode of life and liability to pulmonary disease. Mr Thomas, the Guardian of Aborigines, spoke of natives being found of a morning bedded in the mud, drunk, and, if not dead, in a surely dying state, death being inevitable when, through such exposure, the chest becomes affected. Favourable mention is made in the Report of the mental powers of these natives. Pickering has remarked the noble bust of a well-conditioned Australian aboriginal. The Report places the race above the Negro, and attests a certain quickness and aptitude for some stages of education that are not uncommon to savage life. Those marked negations of the aboriginal character that, when compared with civilised life, are more readily perceived than intelligibly defined, are described, but not quite appreciatively, as deficiencies in the reflective faculties, and as a want of steadiness of purpose. A Moravian mission still labours in Victoria, after others have in despair abandoned the cause. Mr Spieseke of this mission still hopes ; but with a devout qualification, that it is rather from the influence of Heaven than the dispositions of the natives.

At Lake Boga, two years elapsed ere even one native would come near the mission, although afterwards they were less shy, and expressed themselves as sorry, when, in 1856, the mission was broken up. Another mission was afterwards established at the Wimmera River, where last-year (1860) a young aboriginal called Pepper was admitted by baptism into the Christian Church, an event which, as relating to the first fruits of a long labour, gave great satisfaction to the mission and neighbourhood. There is considerable success in the employment of the natives in certain kinds of service, many of the pastoral stations of Queensland, as the governor of that colony intimates, having some of them in service; while in West Australia, according to the official statistics of 1859, there are 245 in private employ (176 males and 69 females) out of a total of 350 aborigines within the settled districts. The Report justly condemns the neglected condition of the natives, helplessly exposed as they are in a country almost entirely occupied by the colonists. The recommendation is, that reserves of land be made for their special use in secluded situations, and, especially, freed from the vicinity of public-houses. There must be a reserve for each distinct tribe, and situated within the bounds of their respective range of country. The natives, as experience has repeatedly shown, are most unwilling to leave these grounds, and the tribes are even more indisposed to associate amicably with one another.

There are of late some available data with which to form an estimate of the present aboriginal population of Australia. The last explorations show that the interior possesses a much larger proportion of good land than was pre-

viously supposed, and also that such lands, when met with, are occupied by the aborigines. The native population seems comparatively most numerous in the tropical region, where the rains are more regular, the vegetation more porous, and supplies of food no doubt more adequate and regular than in the other parts. The Victoria Legislative Report, above alluded to, informs us that the aboriginal population of that colony, on its being first occupied, was from 6000 to 7000. The area of Victoria is not quite  $\frac{1}{36}$ th of the whole of Australia; and as a country available for man, it is probably not surpassed by any equal area of the rest of the country. Admitting that the northern regions have relatively the thickest population, but counterbalancing that circumstance by the probable fact, that one third of Australia is sterile and uninhabitable, we have the chief data of our question. We must still allow for the well-known decrease that has already occurred in the colonised districts. The population thus established for all Australia will amount only to 200,000; and it is certainly a poor exemplification of the powers and resources of savage life, in a country of three-fourths the area of Europe, where our commencing colonies, having already more than five times that number of people, have raised both from above and from beneath the surface the elements of a colossal wealth and commerce.

Gladly we turn from the darkness of the Australian prospect in its human department to a scene not far removed, not less dark, only a few years ago, but now sensibly brightening. Ever since the massacre of Williams at Erromango in the New Hebrides in 1839, the natives of these and the adjacent islands have been the

objects of only increased solicitude to the untiring and forgiving missionary. In spite of difficulties of communication, only two years and a half elapsed ere another mission had been organised and established on the adjacent island of Tanna ; and although expelled thence a few months after, it was only to proceed to another member of the inhospitable group. Nothing could well exceed the savage barbarism at first experienced. The natives, addicted alike to thieving, fighting, and cannibalism, kept the mission in a state of constant disquiet. Adjacent tribes or villages quarrelled and fought for months together. They were incessantly plundering either the missionaries or one another. A native chief, while, at the instance of the mission, denouncing one of his subjects for a theft, was detected in the act of purloining some property by means of his toes. Their females, even when leaving their residences for water, were observed to encumber themselves with various effects, including their young poultry, lest they should be stolen in their absence. One powerful and lingering obstacle in the way of civilising influences, was the prevailing conviction in aboriginal minds, that the white people introduced or intensified their diseases. Repeatedly were missionaries murdered on this account. Still, however, others pressed forward in their place, who overlooked or forgave the past, and while labouring to instruct and improve, asked nothing in return. The simple-minded natives, at first astonished and perplexed, were at length subdued. The year 1859 saw a marvellous change at and around the mission stations, which had by this time been established on twelve of the islands. Mr Turner testifies to the constant cannibalism that had been everywhere

prevalent, as well as other shocking habits, such as infanticide, the custom of killing the widows or other relations on the death of the chiefs, and the barbarity of burying alive, especially those in helpless old age. Striking is the change that has come over this dark scene. Large numbers now profess Christianity, affording in their mode of life a marked contrast to their former condition, and to that of those who still remain heathen. Let us take the case of the island of Niué, one of the New Hebrides, and appropriately, with reference to the past, called the Savage Island. It is 40 to 50 miles in circumference, and out of a population of 4300 all but ten persons professed Christianity. A road six feet wide had been constructed all round the island, partly made and kept in repair by fines, and having the sides planted with cocoa trees, for the sake of shade from the sun. There are now plantations of the sugar-cane. Mr Turner, on his arrival, had appointed a meeting with the people at a particular spot at some distance, and as himself and party passed along the road in the morning before daylight to the rendezvous, they heard the sounds of Christian worship issue from the native dwellings, their occupants thus discharging the first duties of the day ere they also set forth for the appointed meeting. The opinion seems universal, remarks Mr Turner, of this island, that the population is now increasing. The twelve islands now occupied by this missionary body (connected with the London Missionary Society) comprise a population of 65,500, of whom 19,743 profess Christianity.

Mr Turner notices some striking features in his account of Tanna, the island to which he first proceeded. It is 40 miles long by 35 miles in breadth, and contains now

probably 15,000 people. The scenery, generally attractive, is diversified by an active volcano, emitting loud and fiery explosions every few minutes, but of which striking object the natives are utterly regardless. They rather enjoy, in indolent repose, the warmth of the ground in the volcanic neighbourhood, and use a variety of hot springs, according to the degree of their temperature, either as baths or for purposes of cooking. The hottest springs being in some instances close to the sea, the natives can spear their fish, and at once transfer them to these natural cauldrons. These islands resemble Australia and New Zealand in the tribal system of their social polity, and they are even more distinguished than the others by the mutual hostility of these small communities. Each jealously keeping to its own district, when not actually at war, they remain secluded in a hostile spirit from each other. One result of this system is the extraordinary diversity of dialect into which the original or fundamental tongue may be said to have lapsed by the accidents of time. In the little island of Tanna the missionaries had to procure an interpreter, in order to understand a tribe a few miles distant. The population of these islands is proportionately much larger than that of Australia. Even New Caledonia, although not on the average more fertile than its great neighbour, is considerably more peopled, with its 50,000 or 60,000 inhabitants to an area of 8000 square miles. The smaller islands are generally, indeed, the superior in point of fertility, and their natives, of a higher intelligence, have some kind of artificial cultivation which the Australian has never, or at least in a very slight degree, attained to. But the explanation chiefly is, that the sea is

the great source of food to these aborigines, and consequently their numbers bear some relation to the extent of sea-coast, a circumstance that of course is in favour of the smaller islands. Next to the sea coast, the larger rivers are the sources of food. The banks of the Murray, the largest of Australian rivers, presented a comparatively large number of natives when the country was first colonised, and even now there are still considerable numbers in parts where they are least disturbed by the pastoral occupancy of the colonists.

The colonisation of New Caledonia by the French assumes some interest, both with regard to these missionary successes, and to the proximity of a foreign colonial government to our extensive colonial possessions in that part of the world. The formation of a penal colony—the rumoured first intention of the French government—has happily not occurred. Possession was taken in September 1853, and included the Isle of Pines, and shortly afterwards the Loyalty Islands. The sugar-cane and other produce are cultivated. But the place is now most conspicuous as a French naval station, a circumstance that has caused repeated demands on the home government for accessions of naval strength to the Australian colonies.

Norfolk Island, whose early convict history associated a terrestrial paradise with the lowest depths of human depravity, has been lately raised to more suitable fortunes. The felon population has been cleared out, and the vacated scene occupied by the interesting group of Pitcairn islanders, who in the year 1856 were transferred to this new and pleasant home. The governor of New South Wales exercises over this little society a supreme executive and legis-



## PRELIMINARY SKETCH OF AUSTRALASIA.

lative power; but subject to this authority, there is a local administration in the form of an elective magistracy. A number of selected mechanics have been sent to the island to train the primitive community in the useful arts.

The history of the New Zealand settlements, although so brief in regard to time, exhibits one of the most striking among many triumphs of modern colonisation. Enjoying a salubrious and delightful climate, the great prosperity of the colonists was accompanied by some corresponding advance on the part of the considerable body of aboriginal population. Inspired by example, and with a new view of life and its immediate objects, the natives industriously tilled the broad acres bequeathed by their ancestors, and, in their own vehicles and small craft conveyed the produce of their fields and orchards to the markets of the colonists. The dark and the white inhabitants had been alike declared the subjects of the Crown, with equal rights, civil and political; and the success reported by the Christian missionaries seemed to have completed the edifying picture. But a rude and sudden reverse has come over this scene. The beginning of 1860 brings threatenings of a native outbreak; and in a few months we have a savage warfare with the colonists, in which the barbaric arts of a courageous and sanguinary race, aided by the natural features of the country, are long opposed in vain by effective arms and disciplined regiments. Happily the arms and the discipline promise to be soon effectual, although the war has not terminated as it was expected to do by the native defeat and the truce that succeeded it on 18th March 1861.

Before entering upon the war, it may be interesting to glance at the relative numbers and distribution of the

rival races that had thus unhappily come into collision. A careful enumeration of the aborigines was made during the years 1857-58, from which it appeared that the total number amounted to 56,049. The colonists at the same time numbered 49,802, besides 2353 military with their families. The distribution of the two populations, however, was rather different; for the aborigines were nearly all clustered in the Northern Island, the province of Auckland possessing 38,269, that of Wellington 11,772, and that of New Plymouth (now Taranaki), the locality of the war, 3015; being a total of 53,056. The colonists of this island numbered 29,930, of whom 2618 were of New Plymouth. Since the war commenced, this beautiful little province has been considerably reduced by emigration elsewhere of its former colonists. But, on the other hand, the progress of the colony generally has been quite remarkable. This is especially the case with the Middle Island, which, with its open grassy plains, already begins to rival Australia in the rapid increase of the production of wool.

The immediate cause of the war arose out of the sale of a piece of land by a native chief to the colonial government. This chief, Te Teira, of the Ngatiawa tribe, in the year 1859, offers to sell 600 acres of land at Waitara. The government, who, by the colonial law are the only purchasers from the natives, agree to this purchase; but the right of Te Teira to sell the land in question is disputed by another chief of the same tribe, Wirimu Kingi, who, while admitting the proprietary rights of the other, yet asserts the tribal right to veto the sale. After several months' investigation of title, the government recognise Te Teira's right to sell, conclude the bargain, and proceed to

take practical possession by making a survey of the ground. This procedure brings up Wirimu Kingi, whose opposition by rapid degrees takes the form of warlike hostilities.

These native rights and customs in respect to land had been recognised by the government. Contrary to the policy adopted with the adjacent territory of Australia, where the crown assumed the ownership, the aboriginal proprietorship in New Zealand was recognised by treaty—the treaty of Waitangi—made in 1840. The New Zealanders presented a special case, as compared with other aborigines, from their numbers and intelligence, and the fact that they both cultivated the land and enjoyed proprietary rights amongst themselves. These rights were somewhat complicated by the existence of a tribal as well as individual relationship. The former, which is called “mana,” is a feudal superiority without proprietary right to land.

This native outbreak had some predisposing causes. The treaty of Waitangi, in securing to the natives their lands and their cherished land customs, enacted also, that when the natives did choose to make any sale, the only buyer was the government; and the government, of course, bought at a much less price than that which was charged on the resale to the colonists. This was naturally a source of dissatisfaction to rude minds that had little ability, and still less inclination, to appreciate, in a question of this kind, the benefits and the costs, and the whole relations of a civilised government. But a source of much heavier grief to the native was the evident progress and yearly numerical increase of the colonists, and their own too evident falling off. The aged natives were especially prepossessed with the discouraging idea of their approaching extinction.

With minds less affected towards the new order of things around them than their juniors, they were ever revolving the means of staying the progress and influence of the fatal white man and his government. Hence the native-king movement some years earlier, and now a combined movement for preventing all further sales of land—a combination which had been the true cause of Wirimu Kingi's opposition to Te Teira's sale.

The war was commenced by the Ngatiawa tribe under Wirimu Kingi, and soon after he was joined by the powerful tribe of the Waikatos, who thence took a leading position in these hostilities. Two other tribes, the Taranakis and the Ngatiruanuis, also took part. We may here remark, that the Ngatiawas in past times occupied great part of the present Taranaki country; but owing to some cause of offence to the Waikatos, that tribe drove them away with much slaughter to a position further south, where many, including Kingi, remained for some time. Shortly after this event the New Zealand Company appeared at Taranaki, with the object of effecting a settlement by purchase of the land from the natives. The Company bought from the Waikatos and the resident portion of the Ngatiawas, and supposed that the full proprietary right had been thus secured. The other Ngatiawas, however, presently interposed their claim. They asserted that a mere raid like that of the Waikatos, which was not followed by permanent occupation of the land on the part of the conquering tribe, did not deprive them of their proprietary and other rights. This view may be considered to have been sanctioned by the colonial authorities, for the governor of the day (Fitzroy) intimated to the Company (whose subse-

quent troubles are well known), that their title was defective. The succeeding governor (Grey) confirmed this view, and recognising the Ngatiawas, made a considerable purchase from them, with the object of resettling the New Zealand Company's colonists. Fortified by such precedents, and by the Waitangi treaty, the natives had full scope for their ingenuity, amongst their proprietary and tribal land regulations, in interposing difficulties with the colonists. Nor can they be said to have stood upon a defenceless position, seeing that their part has been taken by the majority of the clergy and missionaries, who may be supposed to have well studied the case; and by the late Chief-Justice Martin, and several other prominent colonists. That all the rest of the colony, including the executive government, has been opposed to the native pretensions, cannot be wondered at, in questions of mixed law and fact, apparently not a whit less complicated than subjects of the same kind in civilised countries. That which experience renders most evident is the difficulty of governing a colony, which, with all the elements of prosperity and progress, is constantly liable to be brought to a stand by opposing views between the tribal and the proprietary native parties, and by everlasting cross purposes between the natives and the colonists.

It appears certain that the natives commenced the war with a very indifferent idea of the strength of the enemy they were opposing, and probably the fact of this impression upon their minds is an explanation of most that has occurred, and of their defiance of imperial supremacy, when it tended to thwart their own views. They have certainly shown us that we, on our part, had no indifferent foe; and for a time at first they were able to defy, and even to beat back,

the small force then sent against them; but in the event they have only supplied a second proof within these two years past, that discipline, the rifle and the Armstrong gun, with the moral stamina of our civilisation, are superior in these encounters to everything they oppose. Now that the natives are convinced of this power, we may hope that they will submit in their land questions to the decision of the appointed parties under the Queen's government, for there can be but one supreme authority in the country, in practice as well as theory, and that they will abandon the conflicting and impracticable native-king project. On the occasion of the last combat, namely, that before the Te-arei pah, in March 1861, the natives displayed their accustomed daring and energy. Discouraged at length by defeat, they obtained a truce from the 13th to the 15th of the month, but rejecting those terms on which alone the colonial government could treat with them, their white flag was withdrawn and replaced by the red ensign of war. Defeated once more, and with great slaughter, they at length succumbed on the 19th. Kingi, however, obstinate to the last, refused to agree, but unable to continue opposition, he retreated to the northern interior with thirty or forty followers.

The terms of peace offered by the government were to the effect that, although the natives have free liberty to state all their claims as to land, the decision on any case must be left to the governor, or to those he appoints to act for him. All plunder was to be given up, and the lands of hostile tribes taken possession of during the war were to be held at disposal of government. Afterwards it was added, that the right of any natives that could be proved to any part of Te Teira's Waitara land would still be respected.

These terms seem reasonable, and are, perhaps, the only conditions that would ensure harmony for the future. The procedure of Governor Brown throughout the native dispute has been called in question as unjust to native rights. He has, however, been defended, not only by the great majority of the colonists, but by the home government, who have further reflected somewhat severely on the New Zealand clergy for the injudicious manner of their advocacy of the native cause. Governor Brown, however, whose term of office was coming to its close, is to be succeeded by Sir George Grey, governor at the Cape, who, as a successful governor of New Zealand on a former occasion, may now be expected to place the affairs of the colony in a more satisfactory condition.

Another question has arisen out of this war, namely, that of its cost, and by whom the expenses are to be paid. As the hostilities extended, each colonial government despatch demanded additional troops, until as many as 5000 military were asked for. The colony had demanded, besides, the reimbursement of various outlay for local forces and defences. These claims are withstood in no mincing terms by the home government, whose despatch of July 1860 prepares the ground for the financial battle. The home authorities would not see the colony exposed to actual danger; but, at the same time, they are not bound to fight the colonists' battles whenever they choose to extend their farms. In justice to the rest of the empire, they cannot spare so many as 5000 soldiers. To reimburse the colony for volunteer outfit and local defences is not only out of the question, but the colony must make some contribution towards the military expenditure. No others of the volun-

teer force than those of the places attacked had given assistance ; and, finally, in thus demanding such costly aid, the colonial legislature showed no disposition to relax any control over the native question, in order to place in imperial hands a greater authority upon that subject which was so intimately connected with the war. The colony has responded in a reasonable spirit to the imperial call. It withdraws the claim respecting local forces. It increases these forces, and by means of a public loan, as well as certain tariff alterations, the revenues are increased to meet the public exigencies. But some difficulty must arise in pushing to any unusual extreme the imperial claim, as the colonists naturally rejoin that the confusing state of the native questions was not of their creating ; neither is the subject on which the war arises now in their hands. There is, indeed, a mixed jurisdiction in the case that will soon produce difficulties, should that mutual forbearance and goodwill that so agreeably characterise the imperial and colonial relations be interrupted.

We shall only further remark, on this most interesting colony, that New Zealand, which, like the other adjacent colonies, enjoys self-government, has the additional and peculiar feature of a variety of sub-governments, having each considerable local powers. These distinctive societies have sprung naturally into existence from the elongated form of the islands, their consequent great extent of sea-coast, and the tendency of the colonists to group themselves around convenient seaports, separated by moderate distances. A recent "Provinces Act" regulates the creation of further sub-governments of this kind, and two have been recently added to the six that have been for some time established—



namely, Hawke's Bay in 1858, and Marlborough in 1859. On the late occasion of increasing the number of members of the House of Representatives from forty-one to fifty-three, the following was the estimate drawn up of the population of the eight provinces :—In the North Island—Auckland, 22,159; Taranaki, 1312; Wellington, 13,470; Hawke's Bay, 2037; total, 40,248. In the Middle Island—Nelson, including Marlborough, 10,000; Canterbury, 14,107; Otago, 10,456; total, 34,563. The total for the beginning of 1860 is thus 71,456, besides a small number in the lesser islands.

We turn from the mixed spectacle of these aboriginal races to take a view of the population of colonists. On the mere question of numbers there is already a higher destiny to this part of the world; for the present colonial population of Australia, numbering nearly 1,100,000, is probably much greater than the aboriginal population has ever attained to, numbering as they now do, according to our estimate above, only 200,000. If we add to the colonists of Australia those of New Zealand and Tasmania, their numbers are increased to about 1,250,000. In the table, introduced further on, the particulars are presented for each colony, up to the end of 1859, giving, of course, rather a smaller number than may be estimated for the present year 1861. While the aboriginal population is decreasing, and in some instances with lamentable haste, the vigorous inroad of colonists is maintained, and our emigrating countrymen increase and multiply upon the goodly soil and in the genial climate of their new home.

The discovery of the Australian gold-fields, in the year 1851, gave a new impetus to the progress of population, as it has so notably done to the progress of Australian com-

merce. We may instance the case of the colony of Victoria, which has been the principal scene of gold mining, and whose population has risen from about 80,000, at the time of the discovery, to 548,353 at the end of 1860. There are several features worthy of attention with regard to these impouring crowds of colonial population. Of course, the great proportion of people who proceed to these British colonies are of the British race. There has been, however, some proportion of foreign blood attracted to the scene, as the colony had acquired the repute of being a prosperous and pleasant home. Nor were the colonies averse to such cosmopolitan relations; and the governments, both imperial and colonial, have even provided free passages to parties of foreign labourers who might introduce or extend some kinds of production suitable to the colony, but not familiar to our own countrymen, such as the cultivation of the vine and olive. Many Germans began to emigrate to Australia twenty years ago, and, in particular, to the neighbourhood of Adelaide. In the South Australian census returns for 1860, the population of German birth is 7871, out of a total of 117,967 or 6·67 per cent., besides, no doubt, many of German blood and speech who have been born in the colony.

The high repute of golden Victoria, during the earlier years when the mining was a novelty, brought to the attractive spot a most miscellaneous nationality. But the most striking of these foreign additions as to numbers, and perhaps all else, were the Chinese. Pouring in by successive shiploads, and marching into the interior, a picturesque spectacle, in long lines upon the highways, they all betook themselves at once to the gold-fields. Afterwards some diverted their attention to mercantile pursuits in Melbourne,

of which the colonists would be occasionally reminded by the appearance of *Lo-Quat* or *Cum Quot* in the colonial Insolvent Court. Others began fishcuring and other pursuits, to supply the trade of their numerous countrymen. By the Victoria census of 1857, there were 25,424 Chinese in a total population of 408,998, exclusive of Australian aborigines. The numbers afterwards increased to about 45,000, but they have since again fallen off, being now between 30,000 and 40,000. In 1857 there were only 23 Chinese females, but at present there is probably not one remaining in the colony, as the Chinese have always shown a dread of trusting their females in colonial society; and probably with some reason, as they are not likely to be improved by the contact, and perhaps as little by being associated in the rude, unsettled, and temporary vocations of their countrymen. The Chinese novelty gradually became a Chinese Question, or rather difficulty, involving social and political considerations, which produced considerable agitation in the colony. The people themselves, were inoffensive, even to timidity, and outwardly well-conducted—at least in the vicinity of the police. Still, they formed a large body in colonial society, widely alien not merely in race, but in religion, and in moral and social views, besides presenting an element of perplexity as to the political future, in which they were either condemned to an inferior position, or raised to a place no less questionable—that of political enfranchisement. The result of the agitation has proved unfavourable to the Chinese immigration, the legislature having, by several enactments imposing special payments on immigrants of this race, endeavoured at least to restrict their numbers.

The disproportion of female population, one of the ob-

jections to the Chinese immigration, is still a feature of most of these colonies. In general, the males pioneer the way for some time before the gentler sex will adventure to such remote homes. Thus, the young settlements of New Zealand are still deficient, with about two-fifths only of females. On the other hand, South Australia, which for nearly twenty years has acquired a settled character for its population by extensive and successful agricultural pursuits, presents the nearly equal proportions, as by the census of 1860, of 59,678 males to 58,289 females. To some extent, however, the lingering attractions of the gold-fields of Victoria and New South Wales were still retaining a number of the male colonists, although much less than in the earlier years of gold mining. These attractions have operated adversely upon Victoria society in regard to the female proportion, and also, but in a less degree, upon New South Wales. In both colonies the sexes, which had been gradually approaching equality of numbers, are still in marked disproportion—New South Wales indicating (1859) 140,446 females to 196,126 males; and Victoria (1860) yet more extreme, 341,628 males to 203,049 females.

Another feature, still lingering in Australian society, although happily disappearing, is the criminal element remaining from the transportation system. The lavish expenditure of the imperial government in the two originally penal colonies, New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land, in carrying out this protracted and extravagant experiment in criminal legislation, raised up many colonial defenders of the system. But as families sprung up and homes were formed, society gave a more normal and moral tone, and the system was so vigorously resisted that, as re-

gards that part of the world, it was abolished by the home government, excepting to a limited extent in the case of West Australia, whose slow progress in the colonial race has given to the convict question an attractive, or at least a not unbearable aspect.

#### QUEENSLAND.

Following our plan in this preliminary outline of our subject, taken in its collective aspect, of bringing together all events of a recent character, we shall allude in this place to the newly constituted colony of Queensland, rather than throw the subject into a section of its own further on, and amongst the other and older colonies,—a position it may perhaps take on the next occasion of revising this article. Queensland, as a separate and independent colony, dates only from December 1859.

This colonial territory, however, has been long familiar under the general name of the Moreton Bay District, forming the northern district of New South Wales, and distinguished for its pastoral adaptations. Moreton Bay, from which the settlement took its name, is in S. Lat. 27., and was discovered by Cook in 1770, and named in honour of the Earl of Moreton, then President of the Royal Society. The River Brisbane, on which the present colonial capital, Brisbane, is situated, was discovered only in 1823 by Oxley, who had been sent from Sydney to discover a place suitable for a new penal settlement. This penal settlement was accordingly formed at Moreton Bay. In 1842, however, the district was thrown open to free settlement, and the convict establishment removed. Thenceforward there

is a rapid progress, which is chiefly due to pastoral or squatting enterprise. The central government at Sydney is about 500 miles distant, so that the northern colonists' interests, commercial and social, gradually grouped themselves around a local centre or seaport of their own. Hence the wish for a separate administration, which, after some years of agitation, was at length obtained from the imperial government, who appointed Sir George Ferguson Bowen the first governor.

From the despatches he has already written, the Governor appears to enter with interest upon his duties in a new country, of ample area and almost unbounded promise. Writing on 12th April 1860, he remarks, that the pastoral settlements already extend to Broad Sound, in S. Lat. 22., and that the newly explored and available country around the River Burdekin, 2° to 3° further north, will also soon be occupied. We have, in fact, since that date, as alluded to above, had intelligence of the exploration of the mouth of the Burdekin, whose exit was not previously exactly known, and of the laying out of a township in that remote locality.

The dividing line between the new and the old colony was not a subject on which the two rival interests were likely to agree. The home government had intended that the dividing line should be the 30th parallel; but on remonstrance from New South Wales, which colony had always opposed the separation movement, the line was removed somewhat farther north, where, for the present at all events, it is fixed. The boundary, then, between the two colonies begins at Point Danger, in S. Lat. 28. 8.; thence by the mountain range westerly to the Great Dividing Range,

following this range to S. Lat. 29. ; thence by a lesser hill chain westerly to the River Dumaresk or Severn, following its course to the Macintyre, and by this river till it again reaches S. Lat. 29. ; and thence by this parallel westwards to E. Lon. 141. ; thence northwards to the sea.

*This great area, of more than 550,000 square miles, comprises a proportion, unusually large for Australia, of available soil and well-watered country, the interior consisting in large measure of elevated grassy lands, with a climate sufficiently temperate for sheep. Consequently, the earlier commerce of this part of Australia, as previously in New South Wales and Victoria, is to be connected with pastoral vocations in the production of fine wool. But from official and other reports, it also appears that both the country and its climate are well adapted for the production of cotton, rice, the sugar cane, and other tropical articles. Much the larger part, if not the whole area, lies beyond the region of uncertain climate further south, with its extremes of hot and cold, its droughts and hot winds. The tropical showers, which have saved Northern Australia from the desert character pertaining to a large area of the central and southern parts, extend over and fertilise Queensland. The annual rain-fall is double in quantity that which takes place to the southward. At Brisbane, in S. Lat. 27. 5., for the year ended 30th September 1850, the rain-fall amounted to 55½ inches, and there were 131 days with rain, the months of the greatest fall being February, March, April, and August. The climate, although tropical, is healthful, and not unsuited to the European constitution—in those more southern and temperate parts, at least, that are as yet known by the practical test of actual residence by coloni-*

sation. The mean shade temperature of the year above referred to, taken at the hour of 9 A.M., was 68°, while for each month of the year the temperatures were as follow:—

October,.....69·7	January, 79·2	April, 70·2	July, .....55·
November, 74·9	February, 76·9	May, 60·8	August, ....58·
December, 77·8	March,.....75·8	June, 54·5	September, 62·

In the year 1851, the population of the country that is now Queensland was 8575. In 1856 it was 17,082, spread over an area of 174,600 square miles. The Registrar-General for the colony returns the population for 31st December 1860 at 28,056, of whom 16,817 are males, and 11,239 females. The two chief towns are Brisbane, with 7000 inhabitants, and Ipswich with 4500. The live stock were estimated to amount in 1858 to 3,500,000 sheep, 450,000 cattle, and 50,000 horses. The chief produce is wool, of which, for the year ended 30th September 1860, the export was 4,826,500 lbs., valued at L.422,319. The article next in importance is tallow, which amounted in value for the same year to L.34,120. The finances of the young colony appear flourishing. The estimated revenue for 1860 had been L.160,600, but the actual receipts had amounted to L.178,589, 8s. 5d., the increase being due chiefly to squatting rentals and assessments on live stock, in consequence of the extensive immigration of sheep farmers and their flocks from the southern settlements. The principal items of revenue were, Customs, L.58,879; proceeds of land sales, L.45,326; squatting assessments, L.30,073; postage, L.4806.

The River Fitzroy, which falls into Keppel Bay in S. Lat. 23½°, was the scene of an episode in the colony's his-



tory. In the beginning of August 1858, it was reported that a gold field had been discovered there. No circumstances so commend such reports as those of the present case—namely, a remote distance and an uninhabited locality ; the two circumstances, be it remembered, that must render even a rich Australian gold-field unprofitable, owing to the uncertainty, expense, and discomfort attending the means of existence. Almost immediately there commenced an extraordinary rush of people, first from Sydney, and afterwards from Melbourne and other parts of Victoria. By the end of September, 5000 to 6000 persons had gone to the new Eldorado. There was indeed a gold field, a small flat, called Canoona, situated about 70 miles up the Fitzroy ; and although the spot was soon worked out, yet the surrounding region gave indications of being also auriferous. But the charm was almost instantly dispelled when such masses came together without any of the usual provision for settlement. A counter stream of those returning met those pressing forward, and soon the ship-loads of the latter refused to quit the vessels till they were taken back to Sydney. The incident, however, has resulted in the founding of the township of Rockhampton, situated thirty miles up the Fitzroy ; while the hope that Queensland may, like her neighbours, be a gold-producing colony, has induced the government, during the first legislative session, to repeal the export-duty on gold, a duty still retained by New South Wales and Victoria.

Queensland was constituted a colony by the local publication of letters patent to that effect on 1st December 1859. The constitution had been settled by Order in Council of 6th June preceding. The first parliament met

on 29th May 1860. It consisted of two houses—the Assembly, elected by the people, consisting of twenty-six members; and the Council, nominated by the Crown, consisting of fifteen members. Besides the measure already alluded to for abolishing the gold export-duty, there was one passed for discontinuing state aid to religion—a contentious question with the Australian colonists—and an act for a census in 1861. There were also various acts for the sale, lease, and management of the Crown lands. These Lands Acts fix the minimum price at L.1 per acre; the sales are, as the general rule, to be by auction, and payments to be made at time of purchase, and not upon credit. Encouragement, however, is given to immigration, by award of land orders to those who have arrived in the colony at their own charges—namely, to the amount of L.18 for each person, under certain specifications, and of L.12 more after two years' residence, &c. After a considerable amount of important legislation, the youthful parliament was prorogued on 18th September; and at this stage, upon its promising platform, we must take leave of this rising and interesting colony.

#### INTERNATIONAL STATISTICAL CONGRESS.

The European International Statistical Congress held its fourth meeting in July 1860. The meeting took place in London, and for the first time the Australasian colonies were represented, and by their own delegates, among the World's gathering. It is interesting to notice the circumstance, that the colonial delegates, as representing separate, and in material respects independent governments, were

ranked on the same platform with those of foreign states, but not, as one may suppose, without some difference of opinion on the subject, seeing their respective colonies are all parts of one empire, and the colonists the subjects of one common sovereign. The objects of the congress were, to arouse all civilised nations to a sense of the importance of statistical data, to compare the existing statistical methods of each government, and to endeavour to attain to a universal agreement, both as to the times and the mode of record.

The Australasian delegates agreed in drawing up a joint report, which embraced collectively the entire group, with exception only of West Australia, which colony was not represented, and which was therefore but slightly alluded to in the document. The report comprised three sections, the first of which set forth, in an illustrative manner, the statistical position to which each colony had attained; the second noticed, and at the same time explained, various anomalous looking facts in the colonial statistics, since the great era of the gold discoveries, with especial reference to the colony of Victoria, which had been the grand scene of speculative excitement, and subsequent reaction and collapse; the third section presented the more prominent statistical facts arranged in the order prescribed at previous meetings of the congress.

All these colonies have now a Registrar-General's Department, and they publish annually a volume of General Statistics, conveying a great variety of precise and tabulated information, particularly as to commercial and financial subjects. This method, which has not been long in operation in its present comprehensive and convenient form, is being annually improved and extended; and, to

still more purpose, the colonies are endeavouring to agree as to time and method amongst themselves. They have been hitherto in these respects considerably divergent. In the important business of the census, for instance, New Zealand must enjoy the expensive process of enumeration every three years; Victoria, quinquennial up to 1851, is more impatient under the great changes and emergencies following the gold discoveries, and counts up her numerical strength when leisure intervals can be had, namely in 1854 and 1857; while New South Wales and South Australia, still adhering to the quinquennial period, must needs, however, adopt diversity of time, the first exhibiting the result for 1851 and 1856, the other for 1850, 1855, and lately for 1860. Then, as to plan, while we have Eastern Australia setting forth the numbers in columns headed respectively "Under 2 years, 2 and under 7, 7 and under 14," &c., as in our home tables, West Australia must have the columns quite differently headed, namely, "Under 1 year, 1 to 5, 5 to 10," &c. But at length, it is now probable that in most, if not in all of these colonies, there will be immediately adopted a simultaneousness as to time, and uniformity as to method, in those leading statistics that are of common interest and importance to all civilised peoples, not only with one another, but with the British empire, and with most countries of Europe. The first important step towards this desirable result will be with regard to the census, for which it is understood that New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, Tasmania, and probably South Australia, are making arrangements, in order that it may be taken by each respectively on the 8th day of April of this year, as has been already done in this country.

A thriving British colony has usually but one kind of story to tell, and that, although a highly satisfactory, yet almost a monotonous one—of progress. The imports, the exports, the public revenues, the population of this year, are all so much per cent. ahead of those of last year; and in like manner this year will itself be eclipsed by the next, and so on. In Australia this monotony of progress, if it may be so called, was the rule until the discovery of the gold mines; but since that great era the colonial aspects have been chequered with abundant variety. There occurred almost immediately a prodigious expansion of commercial and financial operations. The chief field was of course the auriferous colonies of Victoria and New South Wales; but as these two became customers on a suddenly increased scale for various productions of the others, there was a general stimulus more or less throughout all. Taking the instance of Victoria, which was the most striking, we have the value of imports for 1851, L.1,056,000; and for 1854, L.17,659,000. Then comes the reaction; for although the population has doubled since 1854, the value of imports has never again reached the amount of that year. The nearest approach was in 1857, when it was L.17,256,000. In 1859, the latest date to which we have complete returns, the value is L.15,623,891. In like manner, the value of exports, which was L.1,424,000 in 1851, rose to L.11,062,000 in 1853, increased to L.15,080,000 in 1857, and has since rather declined in amount. But all these amounts, the lesser as well as the greater, are truly extraordinary as representing the commerce of a single colony, and that, too, all but the very youngest of our many offshoots. The public revenue of Victoria rose from L.379,824 in 1851, to

L.1,576,801 for the next year, and to L.3,202,139 for the year succeeding; while the annual value of Melbourne, which had been rated at L.174,723 for 1852, rose to L.1,553,965 for 1854. Landed property in good situations rose tenfold, and even upwards of one hundredfold in value. To all this there has been a great reaction, which, as was meet, should be felt most severely in Victoria, whose colonists, accordingly, have complained of, "bad times" ever since there was a culmination of the excitement. The great scale of commerce and finance is still maintained; and although the annual results have shown rather irregular features, it seems not unlikely that Australia will ere long return to that normal condition of old, when, in the general progress, every colonist felt that he was better off this year than he had been last. Indeed, these irregular figures of revenues and commerce are now nearly confined to Victoria, and are there also gradually disappearing.

Amongst anomalous looking features in the train of effects produced by the gold mines, was that of the great cost of living in a country heretofore essentially pastoral, and where, with countless flocks and herds, and ample cultivable soil, the necessities of life should have been well-nigh the cheapest in the world. They were so at one time, when the present writer has purchased in Victoria beef and mutton at 1d. per lb., the quartern loaf at 4d., and fresh butter at 3d. to 6d. per lb. These were not indeed the usual or long continued prices in a prosperous colony even prior to the gold era; but until that era, Victoria and Australia generally were to be accounted as cheap-living countries. The Report, in reference to Victoria, thus notices the extraordinary change that came with the gold:—"While

some articles of the import market were even superabundant, other things, more dependent on colonial production, but not less necessary, bore enormous prices. Cottages at L.400 a year were the natural result of bricks at L.12 per 1000, instead of the previous rate of 20s. ; while water at 5s. a cask, and firewood at several pounds a load, instead of scarcely as many shillings, made havoc of those who were dependent on fixed salaries. The luxury of a cab at L.6 a day, or 10s. a drive, was proverbially abandoned to the labourer or the gold-digger. Oats brought a guinea a bushel ; cabbages assumed a new dignity at 2s. 6d. each ; and in a great pastoral country, fresh butter sold for 5s. a pound" (*Report of Proceed.*, p. 62). The reaction we have alluded to has operated upon these extravagant prices as upon other extravagances ; and now, in 1861, Victoria and her neighbours seem subsiding into frugal, industrious, common-sense places, with the early prospect of indicating the old and welcome feature of a steady annual progress. These favourable circumstances, united to a scale of commerce and a breadth of society far beyond our accustomed associations as to colonies, are likely to impart for the future a fresh interest and attraction to the Australasian settlements.

The order of subjects decided upon by the congress was, 1. Population and vital statistics ; 2. Judicial statistics, embracing civil and criminal legislation, the incidents affecting land, &c. ; 3. Financial ; 4. Industrial, including commerce ; 5. Public instruction ; 6. Relation to the natural sciences.

The complete statistical data before the delegates at the time of the congress extended to the end of the year 1858, at which time the population of colonists, exclusive of that of West Australia, was 1,110,479, or including the latter

colony (with its 13,306), 1,123,785. The aggregate public revenues, exclusive of loans, amounted for 1858 to L.5,406,213, and the public debt had already crept up (for the year 1860) to L.11,510,460. The latter, indeed, is likely to increase much faster in proportion than the former, as the colonists show a decided appreciation of railways and other public works, and of the facility of finding the means in the inexhaustible fountain of the home money-market, where Victoria and New South Wales government bonds are already well-known securities. The aggregate commerce for 1858 amounted to—Imports, L.25,406,822; exports, L.21,297,303. The total of shipping inward and outward was 2,655,457 tons. One of the most important data was a careful estimate of the yield of Australian gold, a subject heretofore in some degree of uncertainty, owing to the defective records of the customs in the earlier years. The estimate is made to the end of 1859, at which time the total had amounted to a value of L.101,512,930. The proportions of this large amount were contributed as follows: Victoria, L.93,810,212; New South Wales, L.7,394,718; South Australia, L.160,000; New Zealand,\* L.140,000; Tasmania, L.8000. The New South Wales gold was valued at 77s. per ounce, that of the other colonies at 80s. The New Zealand gold fields date only from 1857, and the

\* Since the completing of the Congress Report the official returns for New Zealand for 1859 are to hand, showing the value of gold exported from that colony, as officially recorded up to the end of 1859, to be L.121,313, 2s. 3d., "besides a considerable quantity exported privately, the amount of which cannot be ascertained." In assuming L.140,000 as the total, the delegates have therefore made a fair approximation.



production gives promise of increase. That of New South Wales is gradually increasing, while in Victoria the production seems steadily to fall off each year, at least since 1856. This feature, however, is accompanied by the fact of a diminishing number actually engaged in mining.

#### FINANCES.

*From the elaborate table at the end of this section, the reader will see what large amounts now represent the finances and commerce of these colonies. As the table supplies all the necessary statistical detail, we shall here make only a few general remarks.*

These colonies, in their system of taxation, have followed, in a general manner, the example of our imperial system, although with certain distinctions. Both systems derive a large proportion of income from customs duties, equal to about one-half of the whole revenue on the colonial side, while it is only one-third on the imperial. On the other hand, the colonies are free of the excise system, excepting in the case of colonially made spirits. One item of revenue peculiar to colonies, and a large item in the younger colonies, such as Victoria and South Australia, is the proceeds of land-sales. As each colony extends, fresh lands are constantly being surveyed and brought forward for sale, usually by public auction, to the increasing colonists. In the younger colonies, the proceeds of these sales generally amount to one-third or one-fourth of their respective revenues.

The chief colonies have agreed in adopting the principle of a short and simple tariff list, which, by imposing con-

siderable duties on a few import articles of large consumption, yields an adequate revenue, and leaves commerce otherwise free. In the selection of these few articles, regard has been had mainly to those which are not in the position of necessities. Thus spirits and tobacco are most heavily taxed, namely, at about 10s. per gallon and about 2s. per lb. respectively. Opium, which makes some appearance among the imports since the immigration of the Chinese, is also heavily taxed. Wine and beer follow, with diminishing rates of duty; and tea, sugar, and, in some of the colonies, a few other articles, are also moderately taxed. The principle of fixed duties has been preferred to that of the *ad valorem*. Although the different colonies have not agreed in one common tariff, they have shown, latterly at least, a disposition in their tariff systems to approach one another. Thus those that had retained a generally-taxed import list, as South Australia and New Zealand, have of late much diminished this list, and made good their income by extra rates upon the remaining articles, and particularly upon spirits; while others that had continued the old system of differential duties upon spirits, favouring rum or whisky, for instance, have latterly been disposed to equalise the rates, and to charge duty upon the strength of spirit only.

The unusual feature of an export duty has been introduced in the case of the gold produce. The defence for this impost is, that it is a substitute for a rent from the miner for the use of the ground from which he extracts the ore. The system first employed, of charging each miner a license fee of 30s. per month, was found unsuitable to the diversified scenes of good and bad fortune presented by a

gold-field, and was therefore abolished. The export duty imposed was 2s. 6d. per oz. It was first levied in Victoria (May 1855), and afterwards adopted by New South Wales (February 1857) and New Zealand (November 1859). An agitation with the view of procuring the repeal of this duty has been gradually gaining strength. The new colony of Queensland, where gold-fields also exist, and which inherited this duty from New South Wales, has signalised its first legislation by repealing the gold export duty.

The era of self-government may be distinguished as the era also of public debt in these colonies. The amounts are already considerable for the two principal colonies of New South Wales and Victoria, and are chiefly due in each case to the extensive railway operations in these colonies. With the exception of several short lines around Melbourne in the hands of private companies, all these railway constructions are being effected by the respective governments, after a first but ineffectual attempt of the public, on the joint-stock principle, by aid of a government minimum guarantee.

The principal banking business is conducted by companies originated in London, which, with their large paid up capitals and accredited position, have imparted some degree of stability to colonial commerce—a greater degree, at least, than would have resulted from only smaller local institutions of this kind, amidst the prevalent colonial feature of a spirit of enterprise running into extravagance, and the system of general credit which attends it. There has been of late a disposition to establish local banks and analogous institutions, particularly in Victoria; but even with these

there is a tendency to lean upon the ample money market of this country, for, after some career of independence, the banks, as well as railway and other companies, generally end in placing a large part of their stocks or their bonds upon the London market. The banks have the privilege of issuing notes of the value of L.1 upwards, payable on demand. The comparatively ample means in the hands of the masses of a colonial population occasion a large absorption of note circulation, just as from a like auspicious cause we find a much larger consumption per head of tea, sugar, or flesh meat. The report presented to the Statistical Congress institutes a comparison as to note issues with Scotland, where there are L.1 issues—a license not granted to England. In Scotland, as is well known, the note issues have all but superseded the use of gold coin; and yet the circulation is only L.1½ per head of population, while that of New South Wales is L.2½ per head, and of Victoria, L.3½ per head. The comparison is still more striking, from the circumstance that in these colonies there is no exclusive preference, as in Scotland, for notes over metallic money, the latter being also in large circulation. Besides the considerable amount of coin in circulation, the quantity held by the banks collectively is usually not less than from L.4,000,000 to L.5,000,000. The scale of banking business throughout these colonies may be inferred to be considerable, from the fact that the total of the deposit accounts is about L.15,000,000, and of the loans and discount accommodation given by the banks about L.20,000,000. The rates of interest for money are higher, as might be expected, than in this country. The colonial rate ranges between 6 and 10 per cent. for good securities, and may,

with sufficient correctness, be assumed as on an average double the rate of this country.

An event of some significance in colonial progress is the establishment of an Australian mint, which was erected at Sydney, New South Wales, and came into operation in May 1855. This mint is a branch of the Royal Mint, and under imperial appointment and supervision, although its expenses are defrayed by the colony. The imperial authorities, however, have not yet admitted the coin to the rank of imperial currency, notwithstanding that it is an exact reproduction of the latter. In the earlier years of the gold discoveries, the large yield of gold, thrown suddenly into a limited circle of commerce, caused for a time a sensible derangement, and a great demand for additional supplies of money to conduct the exchanges incidental to an immense expansion of business. Long after the exact value of the gold was known generally throughout the colonies, three ounces of coin would purchase four ounces of metal, the latter being even purer material, and therefore, weight for weight, the most valuable. This state of things could not last; but while it existed, the use of a mint was strikingly obvious, and New South Wales and Victoria came into active rivalry for the distinction of possessing the institution. The former colony, which was the senior, and up to that time much the more important, was successful. But this circumstance is now to be regretted, as the great proportion of the gold produce, and with it the preponderance of wealth, commerce, and population, have since appertained to Victoria, and have, in fact, induced that colony formally to petition the home government, as was done last year (1860), for a mint establish-

ment of its own. The New South Wales Government, seven years previously, had sent the Colonial Office an earnest of L.10,000 towards mint expenses; the Victoria Government has sent L.15,000, with a special request for imperial privilege to the coin. The permission of this second mint, however, has been declined. The mint at Sydney was established in 1854-55. The total cost of buildings and plant has been L.49,215. The cost of maintenance, from 14th May 1855 to 31st December 1859, amounted to L.60,689, while the mint receipts for the same period were L.65,916. The coinage is of gold only, and the colony is not allowed to make the institution a source of profit. The regulations and charges have been altered on several occasions. At present, the mintage rate is  $1\frac{1}{4}$  per cent., or  $11\frac{3}{4}$ d. per ounce, when the return of coin is wanted in two days. If the quantity is above 1000 ounces, the charge is only 1 per cent., or  $9\frac{1}{4}$ d. per ounce. There is not now any charge by government, beyond this mintage rate, for conveying the gold from the mines to the mint, and returning it in coin. At first, the mint was carried on at a loss, but of late, and particularly since Victoria has, after some hesitation, received the coin as legal tender, its receipts have repaid considerably more than its expenses. The total of gold coined, up to the end of 1859, was 1,380,964 ounces, of the value of L.5,402,695.

## COMMERCE.

In conveying to the reader a view of the present position of the commerce of our Australasian colonies, we shall take our survey, in the first place, from the home side, and afterwards remove our stand-point to the colonies. Taking a

retrospect, then, of fourteen years preceding 1860, and making two periods of seven years each, the value of the exports of the produce or manufactures of this country to Australia has been, for the annual average of the first seven years, 1846-52, 2½ millions sterling; while for the second period, 1853-59, the annual average has been 11 millions. The commercial race between the different colonies or colonial groups enlivens the pages of our imperial blue-books. Australasia has active rivals in contributing to the huge total of the annual sum of the British exports. To the North American colonies the annual average of exports, as above, for the seven years 1853-59, was rather more than 4 millions sterling, and to India a little above 12 millions. For the year 1860 the value of the total exports of British produce, &c., to all the world had risen to the unprecedented sum of L.135,842,817; of which amount the proportion to India was 17 millions, and to British North America, 3½ millions. To Australasia the amount was L.9,707,000, and this being rather less than the yearly average of the seven years preceding, shows still some of the reaction, already alluded to, from the extravagant trading of the earlier years of gold-mining. The following are the principal articles composing the British export to Australasia for 1860:—

Apparel and Slops,.....	L.1,189,995
Beer and Ale,.....	509,200
Cottons,.....	519,518
Haberdashery, &c.,.....	603,073
Hardware and Cutlery,.....	424,224
Machinery,.....	228,320

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Carry forward,..... L.3,474,360

Brought forward, .....		L.3,474,360
Iron—Bars, &c., .....	L.105,033	
Cast, .....	141,110	
Wrought, .....	402,049	
Railway, .....	176,679	
	<hr/>	824,871
Woollen Cloths, .....	L.150,968	
Flannels, .....	232,060	
Worsted, .....	146,400	
	<hr/>	530,428
Other articles, .....	4,877,840	
	<hr/>	
Total, .....		L.9,707,499

The proportions of British exports sent to each colony for the same year, 1860, were as follows:—

West Australia, .....	L.98,884	Victoria, .....	L.5,378,083
South Australia, .....	811,048	Tasmania, .....	367,527
New South Wales, .....	2,429,893	New Zealand, .....	568,767
Queensland, .....	53,297		<hr/>
		Total, .....	L.9,707,499

Amongst the noticeable articles imported from Australasia\* are tallow, hides, and wool, which articles are more or less derived from all members of the group; copper from South Australia, where, owing to the recent discoveries of the Wallaroo mines, the production is likely to be much increased; and gold, the production of which is as yet almost entirely restricted to Victoria and New South Wales. Nearly the whole of these various exports are transmitted to this country. By far the most important articles are the wool and the gold. The latter we shall allude to further on. The following table, exhibiting the progress and extent of the wool importation, shows the quantity of wool from Australasia, as compared with that from



other places, colonial and foreign, and the whole forms truly a lively fragment of the commercial picture. The figures represent pounds-weight of wool in millions and decimals.

*Importation of Wool into the United Kingdom. (Quantities expressed in millions of pounds' weight.)*

Year.	Austral.	Cape.	India.	Foreign.	Total.
1820	·1	·02	·01	9·76	9·8
1830	2·0	·04	—	30·26	32·3
1840	9·7	·8	2·4	36·5	49·4
1850	39·0	5·8	3·5	26·0	74·3
1860	59·2	16·6	20·2	52·4	148·4

The quantity of gold supplied by Australasia up to the end of 1859 has been already stated. The following are the details of the production of that year for each colony:—

*Gold Export from the Australasian Colonies for the year 1859, distinguishing the Quantity from each Colony, and where sent.*

Colony.	United Kingdom.	British Possessions.	Foreign States.	Total.
Victoria,.....	£8,230,956	£890,508	£573	£9,122,037
N. S. Wales { Coin	638,243	848,590	1,150	} 1,703,924
{ Gold	93,430	122,511	...	
New Zealand,.....	8,427	20,000	...	28,427
South Australia,...	730	...	...	730
Tasmania,.....	988	1,200	...	2,188
Total,.....	£8,972,774	£1,882,809	£1,723	£10,857,306

There is now a large exportation from New South Wales of the gold coinage of the local mint, which, although

not privileged as imperial money, yet is a legal tender in the adjacent colonies, as well as in some other parts of the empire. The exportation to "British Possessions" is almost solely the forwarding of bullion from Victoria, and the return from New South Wales as coin. Considerable gold shipments, entered for Suez and Aden, are assumed in the above table to belong to the heading "United Kingdom," as intended for that destination. The gold production is increasing in New South Wales and New Zealand, and falling off in the other colonies, and markedly so in Victoria since the year 1856. That year, which was one of abundant rainfall, gave an export of close upon 12 millions sterling of gold. During the succeeding four years, 1857-60, which were characterised by a rather scanty rainfall, the quantity of gold produced gradually fell off. The abundant water supply which has ushered in the year 1861 seems to have arrested this decrease. With very slight exception, the whole of the gold is brought from the mines to the shipping ports by an armed escort service, supplied by the Government. The following are the weekly average quantities brought down for the last four years, showing clearly the gradual decrease:—

Weekly Average.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.
1st Quarter, oz. :	43,816	41,925	41,982	36,311
2d    "    "	44,408	45,290	44,417	39,517
3d    "    "	51,340	43,235	44,523	40,204
4th   "    "	53,611	47,917	39,084	37,723
Average of Years,	48,294	44,842	42,501	38,439

While we attribute this successive decrease of the last four

years in great measure to inadequate water supply, a good shower of rain being really in this respect a shower of gold, other causes may also be given for a circumstance so important to commerce, and, we may add, so remarkable in itself, in the face of very greatly improved mechanical appliances in the business of gold mining. We must accept the constant assertion of the practical miner, that the diggings are not now so rich in gold as they were found to be at first; that is to say, he by some means found out the most productive fields, and has already exhausted them. But this comparative poverty towards the surface (for the earlier diggings were mostly what would now in contempt be called mere surfacing) led to the present extensive system of deep sinking, which, at depths of 300 or 400 feet, is still remunerated by the yield of gold, notwithstanding the great cost in reaching this remote region of the ore. This account refers to alluvial as distinguished from quartz mining. These vast masses of alluvium, or drift, are the accumulated result of the quartz-grinding process of Nature through past ages. But Nature, although thus so sure in the end with all her work, is meanwhile too slow for the miner, who has himself now attacked the quartz veins and ridges on every side with his pulverizing machinery. And here we may remark, that the question of decrease in gold production in these drifts must not be confused with that which may arise from the probable impoverishment of the auriferous quartz veins with the increase of distance from the surface. This result has been predicated by Sir R. I. Murchison, our great authority on the scientific side of the gold question, from extensive observation of other parts of the world, although this important position, as to the

universality of the rule at least, is still apparently one of dispute in reference to Australia.

With all increased appliances, then, there is still a falling off in Victoria in the yield of gold. The view is less unsatisfactory, in alluding to another cause of this decrease; namely, the diminishing numbers actually engaged in mining pursuits. This is shown by details of the colonial statistics; for although the total population upon the gold fields largely increases, there are now no longer at these busy scenes a merely homeless and unsettled multitude of diggers, but large incorporated towns, with their various vocations, together with extensive farming and gardening operations in their vicinities.

The present extent of the gold-mining interest is thus given in an official return of the Victoria government for 31st December 1860:—The total number of adults engaged in mining is 107,572. Of these there were 88,974 occupied in alluvial mining, and 18,598 in quartz mining. The alluvial miners included 20,100 Chinese, the remainder, 68,874, being Europeans. In quartz mining, only 28 were Chinese. The alluvial miners were aided by 294 steam-engines, of 4137½ horse-power, besides 5252 various other contrivances, chiefly horse-puddling machines. The quartz miners owned 420 steam-engines, of 6696 horse-power, besides a few other (231) mechanical appliances. The total value of all this mining plant was L.1,259,669.

The discovery of the Australian gold fields, which has been so promptly followed by a great and eventful colonial history, is attended by several circumstances well worthy of record. Sir Roderick I. Murchison, in delivering his address as President of the Royal Geographical Society, in

the year 1844, pointed out the similarity that existed, in the direction, the age, and the mineral features, between the Ural and the Eastern Australian mountain chain, remarking that the latter differed from the former, and from other similar cases, only in not having as yet offered traces of gold. These views were based upon an examination of specimens of the Australian rocks brought to this country by Count Strzelecki, an examination that proved these rocks to belong to the slaty formation of the Lower Silurian system. It does since appear that, prior to this time, traces of gold had been found in this Australian range. In the first place, gold was detected, in the year 1839, by Count Strzelecki himself, who mentioned the fact to several friends in Australia, including the then governor of New South Wales, Sir George Gipps, but who, as is understood, at the instance of the governor, who doubted the advantage of the discovery, refrained from making it known. Again, in 1841, the auriferous indications were met with by the Rev. W. B. Clarke of Sydney. But although, in this latter case, there was no studied silence, the discovery was not made public in any usual or effectual sense of the words, as is clearly enough shown by the negative character of the President's remarks, and still more so by the fact that so suggestive an intimation, made so publicly and by competent authority, failed to excite attention. Two years afterwards, Sir Roderick again endeavoured to draw attention to the subject, and still more urgently in 1848, on the announcement of the Californian discoveries. No practical results followed, however, until 1851, when Mr E. H. Hargreaves, a colonist of New South Wales, just then returned from a visit to California, guided by the similarity

of appearances in the two countries, announced the Australian gold fields, and himself washed the first gold dust from the first Australian diggings.

## GENERAL PROGRESS.

Having alluded to the extraordinary increase of population, and expansion of commerce and finance in Australia in consequence of the gold-fields, we shall here glance at several conspicuous features of progress in other respects.

The Press commands the first attention. The literature of the newspaper is that alone which has as yet any remarkable development ; but the press, in that department, is already a great institution. The colonial municipal systems freely facilitate every ambitious township in assuming the rank of a corporation, and displaying a staff of civic dignitaries. The privilege is promptly availed of ; but long before the era of even a precocious municipality is the era of the newspaper ; and perhaps the first intimation of the existence of some nascent Manchester of the far interior, obtained by a quiet citizen of the colonial capital, is the casual encounter with its broadsheet, which has just been added to the score or two of " provincials " that already crowd the table of the public reading-room. The gold-fields brought an immense development to the press—so much so as to cause, in the year 1854, a sensible disturbance to the usually even tenor of the home paper market by the suddenness and extent of the new demands. The newspaper spirit in the colonies has communicated itself to the German colonists, and even to the Chinese, who each publish papers in their respective tongues. The longest

established journal in the ample colonial list is the *Sydney Morning Herald*, a daily paper distinguished for its moderation and intelligence, and having a circulation of 8000. But the most conspicuous, although a much younger member, is the *Melbourne Argus*, also a daily paper, the *Times* of the South, whose crowded advertising columns make, in this respect, no slight approach to its great Northern prototype. It is characteristic of the wants and tendencies of large and busy aggregations of our countrymen, that the principles and policy of the *Argus* have gradually subsided, from those extremes common to the colonial press, into a course not dissimilar, colonially viewed, from those of the *Times*. Advocating reforms and progress, freedom of trade, and taking a guidance from the common-sense dictates of the hour rather than from any strict adherence to party politics, there is, withal, a well-tempered step, showing the conservative influences of large and growing responsibilities. The *Argus* has now (1861) a daily circulation of upwards of 11,000, besides that of a *Weekly Argus*, reaching nearly to 5000. The daily circulation has been considerably higher occasionally, and, in 1854, it reached, for one issue, 32,000. There are, in all, 289 persons who derive their subsistence from connection with this paper.

The steam postal service between this country and Australia, after several ineffectual attempts, which were commenced even prior to the gold discovery, is now at length being successfully carried out, so far at least as regards punctuality and a tolerable degree of expedition. Fifty days are occupied between Sydney and London when letters are sent *via* Marseilles. There is still, however, only a monthly communication, and that by one route only

—namely, the “overland,” *via* Suez, Ceylon, and West Australia, the service being carried out by the Peninsular and Oriental Company. For the colonial group collectively this is the shortest route ; but that *via* Panama is more attractive to New South Wales and New Zealand, and these colonies, with the addition probably of Queensland, are ready to subsidize an adequate steamship force on this rival line. Meanwhile the subsidy paid annually for the present service is the considerable sum of L.135,000, and several years since it was no less than L.185,000, the colonies, in all cases, contributing rateably one half, and the home government the other. The lesser subsidy was consequent upon an arrangement requiring a direct and special steamboat service only between Sydney and Ceylon, instead of, as previously, between Sydney and Southampton. From Galle (Ceylon), the Australian mails are now forwarded along with those from India and China. The importance of the Australian postal department may be estimated from the official returns of the two principal colonies for the year 1859 :—

	New South Wales.	Victoria.
No. of post-offices .....	253	263
Letters passed through .....	3,977,920	6,649,288
Newspapers.....	3,168,299	5,051,402
Income.....	L.44,890	L.111,713
Expenditure .....	71,806	126,693

The postage rates are generally moderate ; those of New South Wales, for example, being for town letters, 1d. per  $\frac{1}{2}$  oz., for country letters 2d., and for intercolonial and foreign 6d. per  $\frac{1}{2}$  oz., with 3d. per  $\frac{1}{4}$  oz. additional for letters to Europe *via* Marseilles. The intercolonial and foreign letters are about one-fourth of the whole.



The steam navigation of the River Murray, commenced by Caddell in 1853, forms an era in Australian colonial history. Some attention has been paid to the clearing of the river from snags. The navigation proceeds upwards as far as the town of Albury, and there is now a regular and considerable trade conducted by South Australia, whose colonists first called it into existence. This river navigation has latterly been extended also to the Darling.

The electric telegraph now unites New South Wales, Victoria, and South Australia, and, by a submarine cable, which was laid in 1859, also Tasmania. This cable, however, has not escaped the fate of several similar ones of late, and for some time back has been reported "out of order." The late discouragements of this kind with the Tasmanian, Red Sea, and other telegraphic lines, have deferred a project which had been lately considered by the different Australian governments, for uniting, by a great Australian line, the approaching telegraphic wires of Europe and India.

Railway constructions have, within three or four years past, been on a large scale in Victoria and New South Wales, and to some extent also in South Australia. In Victoria, the operations completed, or in progress, are to cost L.8,000,000, and those in New South Wales about half that amount. These railways are now in the hands of the respective governments, after a previous trial of procuring their construction by private enterprise had proved a failure, excepting in the case of several short suburban lines at Melbourne, and one of 43 miles to Geelong, which latter, however, since its completion, the government have bought up. Being of a very substantial, and therefore a very costly character, these government lines do not

stretch far into the interior, so as to make more available some portion of the boundless territory. For this reason, the New South Wales government projected last year (1860) a cheaper railway system by horse traction, by which various remote and important districts may be connected with the capital, by means of more than 1200 miles of line, at a cost of L.4,000,000. Towards the middle of 1861 there were in Victoria 125 miles of railway actually in operation, in New South Wales about 70 miles, and in South Australia about 36 miles. The colonial government debentures, which are sold in this country to furnish the requisite funds for these great works, are already a noticeable stock in the London market. The scale of some of the other public works of these young colonies is worthy of mention. The supply of water to Melbourne has been effected at a cost of L.931,189, and the Houses of Parliament in the same city are being completed at a cost of L.400,000.

The introduction of llamas and alpacas into New South Wales, Victoria, and South Australia, has been successfully accomplished. In New South Wales there is already a large flock of between 200 and 300, procured through the persevering enterprise of Mr Ledger; and Victoria has added, to about two dozen of these animals, a small troop of camels, which agree so well with their new country, that within a few months of their arrival they have been despatched upon the exploratory expedition that is now traversing the Australian territory. Successful exertions have been lately made by private enterprise to introduce and acclimatise the birds and fish of Europe into Australia. The salmon, in particular, has been an object of attention, as it is hoped that the Tasmanian rivers will

prove a suitable abode for this valuable article of food and commerce. The Tasmanian and Victorian governments have promptly acknowledged the valuable and gratuitous services of Mr Ed. Wilson and Mr J. A. Youl in this country towards this important object, and have transmitted a sum of money (£1725) sufficient to secure a trial of the introduction of the fish upon an adequate scale.

A progress of another kind may be alluded to. The volunteer spirit has spread from this country to Australia. The New Zealand native war has shown that a colonial volunteer force may be destined for something beyond mere pastime. The volunteer force of the attacked districts in that colony stood to their arms and aided the military operations. The voluntary principle is now being tested on an unprecedentedly grand scale in America, and must command respect in the courage and promptitude with which all classes there rally to their respective cause. The critical aspect of the case seems in the precarious efficiency of the officers. In April 1861 a review of 2000 volunteers of Victoria was held upon the Werribee plains, about twenty miles west of Melbourne, and was protracted with various martial exercises for four days. There is now a force of above 10,000 volunteers in these colonies; and this force will perhaps be preferred by the colonists, since the Home Government have of late been urgent for increasing contributions from the colonial treasures for the cost of such imperial forces as the colonies may require. New South Wales and Victoria have for several years past made contributions in this way.

Referring the reader for the more usual statistical data to the elaborate table farther on, we give here a few other particulars, which may prove interesting in a comparison

both with this country and between the respective colonies. They are for the year 1859. The population of the respective colonies for that year will be found in the larger table.

	New South Wales.	Victoria.	South Australia.	Tasmania.
Convictions* .....	406	582	93	184
Lunatics .....	813†	564	40‡	218§
Insolencies .....	348	956	102	141
Do. liabilities .....	£499,787	£1,109,587	£139,875	£91,619
Preferable liens on wool   .....	195,670	194,274	23,319	...
Mortgages on live stock   .....	1,516,711	1,002,297	115,952	...
Do. on land .....	874,643	2,093,610	416,139	91,619

## LATEST OFFICIAL STATISTICS.

The following table exhibits a view of the more prominent statistical data of each of the Australian colonies for the year 1859, that being the latest to which, at the time of going to press, the official returns are supplied.

\* The official statistics of New Zealand, for 1859, supply only the convictions, which are sixty.

† 149 belong to the convict establishment.

‡ For the year 1858.

§ Eight were convicts.

|| The act to give a preferable lien on wool from season to season, and to make mortgages on sheep, cattle, and horses valid without delivery to the mortgagee, is a peculiar measure, and was disallowed by the home government as irreconcilable with British legislation in the pledging of things moveable. The colonists, however, have re-enacted it every two years,—an available mode of evading the imperial difficulty. It was brought into operation first in New South Wales in 1843, whence it passed by inheritance to Victoria, and it has since been enacted in South Australia. The above table shows how largely its provisions are taken advantage of,—as much, in fact, as is the system of mortgages on land:

*Table of the Population, Finances, Commerce, and Agriculture of the Australasian Colonies for the year 1861.\**

STATISTICAL HEADS.	N. S. Wales.	Queensland.	Victoria.	South Australia.	West Australia.	Tasmania.	New Zealand.	Total.
FOUNDATION OF COLONY† .....	1788	1859	1851	1836	1829	1803	1840	
AREA, Sq. miles.....	309,715	557,083	86,831	306,356	1,019,900	22,630	108,408	2,411,323
POPULATION, EX. OF MILITARY—								
Colonists, Males.....	196,126	13,825	335,708	62,328	9,229	48,076	41,055	706,349
„ Females.....	140,446	9,625	194,554	60,407	5,134	37,892	30,453	478,511
Total.....	336,572	23,450	530,262	122,735	14,363	85,968	71,508	1,184,858
Military and their Families.....	...	...	...	63	474	483	1,835	...
Aborigines.....	...	...	(1857) 1,768	(1856) 3,540	(1860) 9,710	(1859) 15	(1857-58) 56,049	...
RELIGION—								
Church of England.....	132,112	(1856) 50,737	(1857) 175,418	(1860) 43,587	(1859) 9,710	(1857) 47,714	(1858) 30,495	439,036
Other Protestants.....	50,737		121,761	56,924	1,354	15,761	20,490	267,027
Total Protestants.....	182,849		297,179	100,511	11,064	63,475	50,985	706,063
Roman Catholics.....	78,869		77,351	15,594	3,248	16,852	6,591	198,505
Jews.....	1,434		2,208	360	...	429	194	4,625
Others.....	3,037		34,028	1,502	51	46	1,558	40,222
Totals by latest Census.....	266,189		410,766	117,967	14,363	80,802	59,328	949,415
PUBLIC FINANCES, &c.—								
Revenue ex Loans, &c.....£	1,511,964		3,257,724	511,927	56,974	289,627	440,328	6,068,544
Chief Sources—								
Customs.....	693,149		1,665,658	140,943	30,921	123,301	168,381	2,738,353
Land Sales.....	228,639		816,521	257,866	8,215	52,612	223,564	1,587,408
Debt.....	3,500,000		5,164,100	830,200	1,750	337,760	500,000	10,333,814

BANKING—																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																					</
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## PRELIMINARY SKETCH OF AUSTRALASIA.

There are a few unavoidable vacancies in the table, caused in most instances by the official statistics not furnishing the data, or from their not being accessible. We make a few observations upon some of the statistical heads.

*Population.*—That of West Australia includes 1057 male convict prisoners.

*Aborigines.*—The numbers in New South Wales and Queensland are very uncertain. In the latter colony, they seem comparatively numerous in the newly settled or the

\* The completed official statistics for the year 1860 have not been received up to the time of going to press, but the following are a few of the chief items, commercial and financial, for that year: those of *Queensland* have been already given. *New South Wales*—Public revenue, ex loans, &c., L.1,359,864; gold from the mines, per escorts, 355,317 ounces, against 293,574 ounces for 1859; mint issues, L.1,625,000, yielding a revenue of L.21,629, against L.1,191,000 and L.18,963 respectively for 1859. *Victoria*—Population, according to the Registrar-General for 31st December 1860, 548,353, of whom 342,727 were males, and 205,626 females; revenue, L.3,006,326, of which the customs gave L.1,500,114, and the land sales L.678,505; imports, L.15,092,734; exports, L.12,951,619; showing still a falling off under both heads. *South Australia*—Exports (produce only), L.1,576,326. *Tasmania*—Imports, L.1,078,326; exports, L.900,439; debt (debentures outstanding), 31st December, L.358,560. *New Zealand*—The public debt is increased by a loan of L.150,000 in 6 per cent. bonds issued in May 1861. The European population for 30th June 1860, according to the Registrar-General, is 76,714—namely, Auckland, 23,159; Taranaki, 2312; Wellington, 13,470; Hawkes Bay, 2307; Nelson and Marlborough, 10,941; Canterbury 14,017; Otago, 10,456; Stewart Island, 52.

† Victoria dates as a colony, and under that name, from 1st July 1851; but as a district of New South Wales it was settled from 1835. New Zealand, also, was settled by colonists for a number of years before it was established as a colony in 1840.

unsettled parts to the north. Within the limits for the present assigned to that colony—namely, inland to 141° E. Long., and north to the coast line—there are probably not less than 30,000 to 40,000. The numbers in West Australia are an estimate for the settled districts only. There are 245 of these in private employ. In Tasmania there are 14 (5 males and 9 females) under care of the Government, and settled at Oyster Cove, and one female, who is married to a colonist. They were estimated at 5000 when the island was first colonised. The New Zealand aborigines, although still so considerable in number as 56,049, are known to be rapidly decreasing. An estimate made in 1844 by the native protector was said to give as many as 109,550, but it was not of so reliable a character as that made thirteen years after.

*Religion.*—This is a difficult subject in the census enumeration. On the occasion of the last census in Victoria (1857), the people were left, or rather enjoined, the liberty of naming their own religious body; and, accordingly, we have a very considerable host, which, however, has been reduced into the few heads of the table. The “Church of England” includes “Protestants” and “Free Church” (not that of Scotland). The “Roman Catholics” include “Catholics.” These inclusions, if doubtful, are comparatively of small number. In South Australia, objections having been taken to the old mode of *compelling* a return of the religion of each, the filling up of the census-paper under this religious head was made voluntary in the returns for 1860. This experiment may be considered successful, as only 1390, out of a total population of 117,967, are left unspecified. The “other Protestants” include “Unitarians,” 493, and “Christians”



(a very wide definition, but one probably assumed by varieties of Protestants), 1658. The census was taken on 1st April 1860, and is remarkable as showing a smaller population for the colony than that by official estimate for the end of the preceding year (122,735). The difference is accounted for, partially or wholly, by the fact of an active emigration in the interval to the Snowy River or Kiandra gold-field, in the southern part of New South Wales, a locality in great repute at the time.

*Finances.*—The public debt of New South Wales and Victoria respectively is the amount at the beginning of 1861. For some time past the increase has taken place by means of the sale of bonds in London.

*Banking.*—The notes are payable in specie on demand, and are for sums of L.1 and upwards.

*Live Stock.*—There being no official return for New Zealand for 1859, the numbers in the table are from an estimate in accordance with the probable increase.

#### VICTORIA AND CALIFORNIA.

While the world is still in surprise at the sudden advent of two such great sources of gold production as California and Victoria, we are now enabled, after witnessing a ten years' race of somewhat tumultuous existence between these remarkable rivals, to institute an interesting comparison. The interest is not alone in the wonderful fact of these two countries, only so recently come into the world's notice, having already reached a primary commercial rank, and supplying from their own soil three times as much of the

precious metal as the whole world previously contributed. There is a still greater interest in comparing the points of agreement or divergence between two rising societies, which have evidently, in either case, a portentous future. Situated in equivalent and temperate latitudes in their respective hemispheres, either country is a portion of a great mainland, and is peopled, the one by the American and the other by the home branch of the English blood. An inroad of miscellaneous nationalities, under the all-powerful attractions of the gold, characterises both societies; and both have already shown those extreme democratic tendencies which we are perhaps to accept as the only solution at this day to a new society of our race, detached from traditions of place and hereditary associations. There is also an equality of step in the mutual race which is hitherto remarkable. In California the gold discovery took place in February 1848, when the country had but a thin and scattered population. The discovery in Victoria was three and a half years later, but the colony possessed at the time a settled population of 80,000. In 1854, the population of California was about 300,000, that of Victoria about 250,000. In 1859, the Californian State Register gives the population as 537,315, including the aborigines; the Registrar-General's estimate for Victoria, for the same year, is 531,701, including aborigines. These latter, however, number only 1768 in Victoria, and 65,000 in California; and in other respects, as to the homogeneity of society, Victoria has the advantage. California has made extraordinary progress in agricultural production; and its large and regular shipments of oats and other produce, sent even to Victoria itself, have given the best refutation to theories about gold-producing

countries that have probably had a discouraging effect upon agriculture in the latter colony. Victoria, on the other hand, has successfully devoted attention to the production of fine wool. The scale of commerce, measured by the usual data of exports, imports, and shipping, is nearly on a par in both. Not the least remarkable feature is the near mutual approximation, as to quantity, in the production of gold, and the pertinacity shown by the precious metals in hovering, without much deviation in either instance, around the charmed quantity of about ten millions sterling of annual production for each country.

The following are the respective populations, with an attempt at finding the equivalents in the two columns. The Californian enumeration is for the year 1859; that of Victoria is from the last census of 1857:—

*Population of California in 1859.*

(According to the State Register.)

1. Americans .....	365,315
2. English.....	2,000
Irish .....	10,000
	————— 12,000
3. French .....	15,000
4. Germans .....	10,000
5. Mexicans .....	15,000
Various .....	15,000
	————— 30,000
6. Chinese.....	38,000
Negroes .....	2,000
	————— 40,000
7. Indians .....	65,000
	—————
Total .....	537,315

*Population of Victoria in 1857.*

(According to the Census.)

Born in—		
1. Victoria .....	67,109	
Other Australian colonies .....	16,880	
England .....	148,881	
Wales .....	4,576	
Scotland .....	53,798	
Ireland .....	65,264	
Other British possessions .....	4,363	
	<hr/>	360,871
2. United States .....	2,950	
3. France .....	1,426	
4. Germany .....	7,934	
5. Rest of Europe .....	4,976	
Other countries .....	417	
Various remainder .....	5,040	
	<hr/>	10,433
6. China .....	25,424	
7. Australians (aborigines) .....	1,768	
	<hr/>	
Total .....		410,806

The following table shows the value of the yearly exportation of gold for each country in sterling money, the dollars, in the case of California, being assumed at 4s., or one-fifth of a pound sterling :—

*Gold Exported.*

California.		Victoria.		California.		Victoria.	
Year.	L.	Year.	L.	Year.	L.	Year.	L.
1848...	...	...	...	1855...	9,038,520	11,172,261	
1849...	...	...	...	1856...	10,139,487	11,942,783	
1850...	...	...	...	1857...	9,795,339	11,046,113	
1851 ..	...	580,587		1858...	9,509,605	10,112,752	
1852...	9,154,800	10,899,733*		1859...	9,515,607	9,122,702	
1853...	10,793,391	12,600,083		1860...	8,465,183	8,624,860	
1854...	10,301,228	9,568,262					
Yearly average since 1851 .....				9,635,018		10,565,505	

**influx.** The latest amended Act, 1859, imposes L.10 per head on those arriving by sea, and L.4 if by land; also L.1 per quarter; which latter payment confers all the miners' rights, excepting that of voting for members of the local mining board. The new and liberal relations between Britain and China may now draw some animadversion upon these exceptional regulations.

These colonies, with the exception of West Australia, *have enjoyed since 1855 the entire control of their own affairs; that is to say, they have respectively a legislature standing in the relationship to the governor that the Imperial Parliament occupies as regards the sovereign.* The governor is appointed by the Crown, and rules by means of responsible ministers. He has instructions to reserve for imperial consideration any measures sent up for his assent that have imperial bearings, or appear to interfere with imperial policy. Practically, however, and as regards all questions purely their own, the colonies have complete self-government. The various legislatures had drawn up in 1854 suggestions to the home authorities as to the constitution they deemed the most suitable; and these suggestions, which were in fact invited by the home authorities, were mainly, although not in every point, embodied in the Act of Parliament that sanctioned their being carried into effect. All the colonies adopted the principle of two houses of legislation. In most, both were elective; in all, of course, the lower house, or Assembly, was so. But these constitutions themselves have since been attacked and modified—a result not perhaps to be wondered at, as they were framed by legislatures that, under the previous system, only in a limited degree represented the people.

The political tendencies, since the era of self-government, are decidedly democratic; and as these colonies were trained up previously under a very opposite system, the transition is being characterised by something of a reactionary spirit, and by the natural desire, on the part of the masses, now instinct with political life, to bring forward new men into public notice—the individuals, or the classes, overlooked under the former régime. These circumstances are apt to communicate, to observers from without, an aspect of unrest to the colonial picture, and perhaps, too, an exaggerated idea of instability, when comparisons are made with the quiet character of imperial procedure. New South Wales and Victoria, with their constant changes of ministry and undecided government policy, do indeed show some exceptionable features in this respect, which probably time will soon smooth down, as they may be due chiefly to some antecedent causes of an incidental character. A class of great importance and influence, following pastoral or squatting pursuits, existed in both colonies, and, being tenants of the Crown, they coalesced politically with their local governments. Both of these parties, by their interests and their instincts, alike opposed themselves to popular principles, and alike strove against imperial concessions to colonial liberty—at least, in any sense widely popular. The first steps in colonial liberties were the Legislative Assemblies of 1843–55, two-thirds elective and one-third of Crown nomination. The imperial government had supposed and intended that, by means of these bodies, there should be an effective initiation into political freedom. But for long afterwards the colonial executives, by means of electoral arrangements, of which

they had the control, could command, even under this semi-free system, anti-popular majorities, consisting all but entirely of Crown nominees and Crown tenants. The other colonies, more happily balanced in these political relations, are passing the transition crisis with comparative order and tranquillity.

These inauspicious beginnings with New South Wales and Victoria, have put both colonies somewhat out of joint for confronting the new system of self-government; and this circumstance is the more important, as these two colonies are by much the most conspicuous of the Australian group. Nor have the arrangements been happy in either case for establishing some effective control over the new-born democratic ardour. The Council, or second chamber, was destined for this duty, but has not adequately discharged it. That of New South Wales was appointed by Crown nomination; that of Victoria, although elective, was even less acceptable or influential, as resulting from an absurdly exclusive property qualification in both voter and member—a mistake partly excused, indeed, by the temporary inflation of all ideas connected with money at the time in the golden colony. Both colonies, in a rapid democratic progress, have since, in their Houses of Assembly, enacted vote by ballot, manhood suffrage, and some approach to a population basis in the electoral system. Their respective Councils are therefore isolated and antagonistic, rather than co-operative, with the Assemblies. That of New South Wales, which was constituted on trial for a term of five years, a term that expired on 13th May of this year (1861), is likely to be soon remodelled upon an elective basis. An incident towards the close of its term illustrates strikingly the defects of its con-

stitution. The Land Bill, a subject of great importance and of strong party feeling, had passed the Assembly, and the ministry were anxious that, prior to the approaching dissolution, the bill should pass that body and become law. But the majority was known to be irreconcilably hostile to the measure. The ministry resolved to outvote this majority by means of "crown nominations" of new members of known ministerial leanings. Only within a few minutes of these members taking their seats was the President of the Council informed, and that verbally, of the circumstance. Regarding the procedure as a public affront, that functionary immediately resigned, and quitting the house, accompanied by the obnoxious majority, further business was prevented for that day, and ere there could be another meeting the council's term had expired. The intention of the conservative party, which five years before had been influential enough to procure this preliminary trial of a nominated council, had been that it should be succeeded by nominations for life. Were this party still ready to submit to that plan, and to leave the government of the day that had just given such a specimen of its hostility, to make these life appointments? Meanwhile, with the Councils as they are now constituted, the Assemblies have all but entirely absorbed the governing powers, and supplied the members of the successive ministries. The legal status of the Council is insufficient, if unaccompanied by public consideration; nor can this consideration arise from a restrictive franchise in a country where all classes, independent in means, and ardent in politics, are tenacious of those equalities that seem appropriate, or perhaps unavoidable, to the social condition. Distinctive features there ought to be between Council and Assembly;



but, with the elective system for both, experience points rather to such differences in favour of the Council as wider electoral areas, even to the whole colony as one electorate, a maturer age in the representative, and perhaps also in the voter, and a position of independence and comparative stability amidst the oft-shifting scenes that will probably long characterise the "constitutional" system of our country in its Australian applications.

A federated Australia is another controlling arrangement that has not been overlooked, although still only in expectancy. For a short time after the introduction of the present system of self-government, this subject occupied more attention than, as we fear, it does now. In 1857 a committee of the Victoria Legislature framed a report favourable to federation, and responses of a like favourable character came from the other colonies; but no actual step has resulted in consequence, although communications between the colonies were resumed three years afterwards. The ardour with which the colonists, under their almost generally adopted system of manhood suffrage, enter into the political concerns of their respective governments, will doubtless prove a gradually increasing obstacle to federation. They will not readily abandon, to the comparatively irresponsible and independent deliberation of a federal body, the great questions of their public policy, after they have themselves debated these questions with reference solely to the views of each colony, and after each colony has, perhaps in important points, arrived at conclusions opposed the one to the other.

An Australian federation, to be effective, must provide for the gradual absorption of all questions affecting the group,

in common either with one another, or with the world without, and for the gradual elimination of the distinctive political aspects of each member of the federation. No community but rejoices in the greatness or increase of its power and resources; and the colonists have before them the option of claiming citizenship with only some one or other of their comparatively small states, or with one united Australia, which already is a principality of the first order in our great empire, and which, in the future, is to be itself a similar empire. Indeed, this great future may in no small degree hang upon the solution of the Federal question. The colonists have with them on this subject the entire goodwill of the home authorities, who themselves conceived, twelve years ago, a project of federation on the occasion of conceding one of the steps of colonial self-government. That a limited society, grouped around a strictly local administration, is the most favourable condition for the early years of a colony, is shown by repeated experience. Thus there is ever the instinctive cry for "separation" raised at the outskirts of great colonies, as illustrated by Victoria and Queensland at either extremity of New South Wales, and again, with a variety of feature, in the provincial system of New Zealand. But, on the other hand, the breadth of a colonial society must in general be the measure eventually of its liberality and steadiness; and the federal arrangement is further effective in securing a comparatively quiet review of the legislation of the subordinate assemblies. The review and the control will, in such hands, be characterised by considerateness, from the circumstance that both authorities will claim their powers from one and the same source—namely, the people; for

without this mode of origin, in some one or other of its adaptations, there will not perhaps exist, in these democratic colonial societies, an authority possessed of adequate inherent influence for practical legislation and government.

The shifting political scenery of Victoria may be expected to bring all varieties of political opinion in turn to the surface. While we write, a "protectionist" ministry has grasped the fleeting reins. The event is indeed the first of its kind, and the reins seem not very firmly held, nor have the new government ventured upon a protectionist tariff, their accession to office not being founded upon this question. But democratic tendencies, in this respect, are at least uncertain, after the continuous, and latterly the egregious tariff examples of America.

Australia, let us hope, is not to be quoted in the same category. Even the great Conservative party of England struck the protectionist flag when, in 1853, the Derby ministry brought forward a free-trade motion, and when they were defeated only by an amendment still more decidedly free-trade. When, after an age of argument, the cause is entirely lost in Britain, is it to begin to find advocacy in Australia? But, say the Victoria advocates, in a struggling young colony many vocations require protection. Perhaps they do; but in such a country, of all others, can the other vocations afford to pay for it? The cost of "Protection" must be borne by the community that adopts it, and that has persuaded itself of the advantage of restricting its market, diminishing its supplies, and diverting more or less of its labour power into comparatively unproductive channels. The practical question is, under which of the rival systems is there the largest produc-

tion to the community? and the answer will point out that system which, to employers and to employed, yields the largest remuneration. Let us single out the case of agriculture. In most or all countries certain favourable circumstances of locality, soil, &c., call forth a certain amount of agricultural operations under free competition with all the world. Enjoying this free market, Victoria shows that farming can still live, and even rapidly increase, in the colony. In the year 1857 there were 180,000 acres of land under cultivation; in 1859 the quantity had increased to 297,000 acres, and in 1861 to 420,000. Let us then consider the bearing of the free and protected farming, remarking, by the way, that the illustration is equally available for the case of protected shoemaking, coachbuilding, or some other arts which colonial protectionists have urged as having peculiar claims. An Australian farmer, then, refrains from cultivating a tract of land simply because, on calculation, he finds he will not be reimbursed. To have persevered, nevertheless, would only have impoverished not merely himself but the community. But let us suppose an adequate protective law to come into force. Forthwith the farmer is at work upon the land in question. What, then, has the protective law effected? Has it somehow improved the productiveness of the soil, or has it ingeniously pointed out a mode of economising labour and still producing the same amount of crop? It has done neither; it has simply compelled the public to pay a higher price.

Religion, so far at least as regards its relations to the state, has its democratic tendencies as well as politics. The religious tendencies, indeed, are usually the least controllable of the two; and, being of this character, they are

fortunately less exposed than the political to official antipathies. The colonists, politically, have not been unreasonably restive under their earlier governments, although these were at first wholly irresponsible; but they would not have submitted to an irresponsible church system, or a colonial church establishment. The system for some time in operation has been that of an aid from the State, distributed to the "Christian" bodies, under certain restrictions, according to population. Beyond this aid, which some, however, do not accept of, the sects support themselves; and thus the system is essentially that of voluntarism. An agitation for abolishing even the state aid has grown increasingly strong since the era of self-government. In South Australia, indeed, where popular feeling had early a freer course, the aid was abolished before that era. Subsequently it has been condemned in the Assembly of Victoria, but still adhered to in the Upper House. Where abolition could not be effected, the distribution has been in some instances made general, and the Jews have participated in the aid. In each Constitution Act there is a provision for a state aid to religion; and hence the contemplated abolition must take place by act passed by the two legislative bodies, and assented to by the Crown. An abolition act passed the Tasmania legislature in 1859, but was rejected by the home government on the ground of vested interests, notwithstanding a considerable compensatory provision had been made on that account.

The colonial governments, with regard to education, have been divided between two rival claimants for their countenance and pecuniary assistance. For a time, at first, education fell chiefly under the control of the different clergy,

assuming the Denominational form, and enjoying annual aids from the public revenue. The National system, a modification of the well-known Irish system, put forward its claims with the advent of representative institutions. This system is gradually gaining ground, as it has an obvious adaptation to thin and scattered populations, and as it permits of bringing into the earliest association those who, under an equality of civil and religious rights, are to take their part in the society or government of the future. It is yet far, however, from being in the ascendant, as the clergy generally, and particularly the Roman Catholic body, continue strongly opposed to it. The new government of Queensland propose a national system, and the successive ministries of Victoria usually repeat the abortive effort of coalescing the two rival systems into one of a comprehensive and national character. The universities established at Sydney and Melbourne have lately been awarded the distinction of ranking their degrees upon an equality with those of similar home institutions.

Sufficient time has not yet elapsed in these colonies since the era of their self-government, to enable us to pronounce with certainty as to the political and social aspect they are definitively to assume. We may, however, venture upon a few remarks of an approximative character in such an inquiry. We have already alluded to what is, doubtless, the fundamental feature of the future, namely, the democratic character of these new societies. Probably, however, as some reactionary features we have also alluded to are traceable to temporary causes, there will not long continue to be displayed that apparent absence of definite political purpose, as indicated by the everlasting "change of ministry," that

has hitherto distinguished the new order of affairs in the two principal colonies. These features, doubtless, arise from the absence or immaturity of that party discipline, and of that decision as to political aim, which characterise older societies that have better gauged their views, as well as planned the modes of promoting and attaining them. An apt illustration occurred in Victoria early in the legislative session of 1861, when a new ministry (that of Mr Heales) resigned office, upon the expression of the Assembly's disapproval of the estimates of revenue and expenditure. In the first place, no opposition party was ready, or, even after some delay, could be created, to take the vacant offices, which had consequently to be refilled by their late occupants. Secondly, the House, although it had condemned the projected scale of expenditure, and had refused the additional taxation scheme by which the excess of expenditure was to be provided for, nevertheless insisted, by a majority of its members, on retaining in the estimates the items that chiefly made up this excess. The explanation is, that these items were connected with various public works, in which a numerically large but disjointed body of country and gold-field members was interested.

The intensity of political feeling that must characterise societies where all classes are independent, where all mingle in public affairs, and where all possess the franchise, is greatly moderated in some of its less desirable manifestations by the use of the Ballot, a system that has been successfully introduced in the principal Australian colonies and Tasmania, and which has relieved not more the employed classes from the undue influence of employers, than the individuals of the separate classes from the overbearing of one another.

The political relations of these strong-willed communities to the imperial government is a subject that might occasion anxiety; and we know that such an anxiety, felt by anticipation, long prevented the imperial government from conceding to the colonies the charge of their own affairs. The anticipation, however, has not been verified. The colonies are now satisfied, and wholly absorbed with what pertains to themselves. The non-interference system has resulted in placing the imperial parent in a position of dignity and influence which she never acquired, or rather, would not permit herself to acquire, previously. There is also an excellent effect arising from the very marked courtesy and consideration which is now, as compared with the past, exercised by the parent state towards these free and expanding colonial societies. Indeed, in this respect, the imperial dispatches, as the production of gentlemen of the best education, and of an experience and urbanity that are comparatively rare in colonies, may always be rendered available lessons, received as they are ever likely to be, with good-will by those to whom they are addressed.

No difficulty has as yet actually arisen from the colonial as bearing upon the imperial policy and legislation, although, in such special cases as that of the Chinese in Victoria, already alluded to, the colonial course might prove not only exceptional but embarrassing, especially under new and liberal treaties with the Chinese empire. Another special case has arisen also in Victoria out of the Transportation system from this country to Van Diemen's Land. The "Convicts Prevention Act" was passed by the Victoria Legislature in 1852, with the object in chief of counteracting the "conditional pardon" system, under which crimi-



nals, after expiating some part of their sentence in the penal colony, received a pardon conditional on their not returning to England. They had usually, indeed, little inducement to return to England, but made off at once to golden Victoria, whose streets, highways, and gold fields, soon gave lively testimony to their presence. The colony took the equitable position that, while these men were still unfit to return to England, they were unfit also for Victoria; and, although the imperial government complains that the Royal Prerogative is infringed, Victoria has, by successive renewals, adhered to her Convicts Act, being stimulated latterly to increased energy by a real or an apprehended overflow of the accumulating convict population of West Australia. Among the few instances of a refusal of colonial Acts may be mentioned a recent case with South Australia, whose legislature had some time previously passed a measure permissive of that interminably contended privilege, the marriage of a deceased wife's sister. The imperial decision on this Act was withheld until the case of *Brook v. Brook*, then pending in the House of Lords, was decided, after which, in accordance with the results of that case, the Colonial Act was disallowed. A Colonial Act abolishing the state aid to religion in Tasmania was also disallowed, as has been already adverted to. On the other hand, the colonies have their own decided views in which they differ from those of this country, and in which they are quite disposed to take their own way. Ecclesiastical affairs have their colonial and democratic aspect as well as other affairs. The imperial government, some years ago, had recommended to that of New Zealand, under its new constitution, an endowment by way of salary to the Bishop

of New Zealand, to be paid out of the public revenue. But this proposition was negatived in the Assembly, as involving an undue privilege to one church or sect of the colonists over the others.

There is yet one important consideration, ere we close this part of our subject. The occupation of tropical Australia has just been vigorously commenced by the young colony of Queensland: are we not to look for the development of a slave system in this region, if possession be handed over to the dominant white race in the form of a system of self-government? Experience of a very fertile character is now teaching that there are possibly before us the elements of social disorder and degradation to a future United States of Australia. Two-fifths of Australia are tropical, and this portion of the territory contains probably as much of productive soil as the remaining three-fifths. Above a million of square miles, with the teeming life of the future, is in this question. It is far too magnificent a domain to be subjected even to the risk of the social death of the slave system.

The rude labour of early colonization in tropical latitudes must long be carried on by other constitutions than those of Europeans, and the numerous dark races adjacent will probably offer willing hands for work. The pressing necessities of the labour question, the temptation to coerce these subordinate races, and the well-known weakness in these respects of a tropical moral feeling, all point in one direction. There is already, for reasons or fears connected with such views, a practice of imperial policy that tropical colonies, with their comparatively small number of a dominant race, shall not enjoy those free governments that have been conceded to colonies otherwise situated, such as those

of temperate Australia. Let the same principle be acted upon with Northern Australia. The indefinite northern boundary of the new colony of Queensland may still be arrested at the tropics. There, then, let us stop with the independent political system, and with the intratropical region found one or more great colonies, which, with their prospective mixed races, shall be equitably administered by the Crown.

The mouth of the Victoria River presents many claims as the seat of a North Australian colony, both from the physical features of the region, including a favourable report of the climate, and from the commanding situation as regards Asiatic commerce, and postal or telegraphic connection with Europe. Stuart's successful expedition adds to the urgency of the call; and our government should, besides, recollect that we have not now, along the vast coast line of North Australia, even one solitary settlement to give us the practical possession of so great a territory. This subject of a northern colony has been frequently alluded to of late years, both in this country and Australia; and the Colonial Office is probably aware of the offers of private associations to colonise Victoria free of cost to the imperial treasury, on condition of free grants of land at the place. Liberality in such a case may be called the creating rather than the giving away of property. More than one of the younger colonies of Australia boasts that it has not cost anything to the mother country; and shall we now prevent the addition of yet one more member to so thriving a family?

## CHAPTER II.

### SUBDIVISIONS OF AUSTRALASIA.

We shall now transfer our view from our subject in its collective character to the various component countries or colonies into which it obviously divides itself.

Australasia, then, may be subdivided into the following groups and islands :—

1. Australia. 2. Tasmania. 3. New Guinea, and the Louisiade Archipelago. 4. New Britain, New Ireland, and neighbouring islands. 5. Solomon's Islands. 6. New Hebrides. 7. New Caledonia. 8. New Zealand, and isles to the southward. 9. Kerguelen's Islands, or Islands of Desolation. 10. St Paul and Amsterdam. 11. Numerous reefs and islets of coral scattered over the Australasian Sea.

#### I.—AUSTRALIA, OR NEW HOLLAND.

*Progress of discovery.*—The first attempt to explore this island, which, from its size, may be considered as the fifth continent of the earth, is commonly accredited to the Dutch.\* There are two charts in the British Museum

\* See, however, on this subject, our remarks at p. 6.

which belonged to the *Harleian Collection* ; one French, without date, which was probably the original ; and the other English, apparently a copy : the latter is dedicated to the king of England, and bears date 1542. In both of these charts is marked down an extensive tract of country to the southward of the Moluccas, under the name of *Great Java*, agreeing more nearly with the position and extent of New Holland than any other land.

The best and most authentic abstract of the Dutch discoveries on the coasts of New Holland is contained in the instructions given by the governor-general of Batavia to Commodore Abel Jansen Tasman, and published by Mr Dalrymple in his *Collection concerning Papua*. From this document it appears that the Dutch government of Bantam in 1605 despatched the Duyfhen yacht to explore the islands of New Guinea. Returning to the southward along the islands on the northern side of Torres Strait, she came to that part of the *Great South Land* which is now called Cape York ; but all these lands were then thought to be connected, and to form the southern coast of New Guinea. About the same place, and in the same year, Torres, a Spanish navigator, saw the *Terra Australis*. He passed the strait which divides this *Terra Australis* from New Guinea, whose existence was not generally known till 1770, when it was rediscovered and passed by our great circumnavigator Captain Cook. Of this, and his other discoveries, Torres addressed an account to the king of Spain, and, as it afterwards appeared, had taken the precaution to lodge a copy of it in the archives of Manilla ; for, when that city was surrendered to the British forces in 1762, Mr Dalrymple snatched from oblivion this interesting docu-

ment of early discovery, and, as a just tribute to the enterprising Spanish navigator, he gave to this passage the name of *Torres Strait*, by which it is now universally known.

Further discoveries were made by the Dutch, including Arnheim's Land, up to 1644, when Abel Jansen Tasman sailed on a second voyage of discovery from Batavia. No account of this voyage, however, was made public, nor is it known to exist. No chart bearing his name is now known, but there is little doubt that the N.W. coast of New Holland was first explored by him; and it is singular enough that Dampier should say he had Tasman's chart of it. Tasman is also supposed to have sailed round the Gulf of Carpentaria. He had sailed, on a former voyage, from Batavia in 1642, for the Mauritius; whence steering south and eastward upon discovery, he fell in with land, to which he gave the name of *Anthony Van Diemen's Land*, in honour of the governor-general, "our master," he adds, "who sent us out to make discoveries."

The last voyage undertaken by the Dutch for the discovery of *Terra Australis* was in 1705, when three Dutch vessels were sent from Timor, "with orders to explore the north coast of New Holland better than it had been done before." The account is vague and imperfect. It is on the west coast that the Dutch appear to have been most successful. In Tasman's instructions it is stated, that "in the years 1616, 1618, 1619, and 1622, the west coast of this great *unknown* south land, from  $35^{\circ}$  to  $22^{\circ}$  south latitude, was discovered by outward-bound ships, and among them, by the ship *Endragt*." Dirk Hartog commanded this ship, and seems to have made the coast in latitude about  $26^{\circ} 30'$  S., and to have sailed northward along it to

about  $23^{\circ}$ , giving the name of *Landt van Endragt* to the coast so discovered; and that of Dirk Hartog's Road (called afterwards *Shark's Bay* by Dampier), to an inlet on the coast a little to the southward of  $25^{\circ}$ . A plate of tin was found in 1697, and again seen by Baudin in 1801, on one of the islands which forms the roadstead, bearing an inscription that the ship *Endragt* of Amsterdam arrived there on the 25th October 1616. After this several outward-bound ships fell in by accident with different parts of this coast.

The Dutch made little progress in any other part of the extensive coasts of New Holland. The instructions to Tasman say, "In the year 1627 the south coast of the Great South Land was accidentally discovered by the ship the *Guldee Zeepard*, outward bound from Fatherland for the space of 1000 miles." From the circumstance of this ship having on board Pieter Nuyts, who was sent from Batavia as ambassador to Japan, and afterwards appointed governor of Formosa, the name of *Nuyts' Land* was given to this long range of coast.

The first English navigator who appears to have seen any part of New Holland is the celebrated William Dampier, who, in his buccancering voyage round the world, in January 1686, touched at the N.W. coast, for the purposes of careening his vessel and procuring refreshments.

It was left for our celebrated navigator Captain Cook to complete the grand outline of the fifth continent of the world. The reign of George III. will ever be distinguished for the liberal principles on which voyages of discovery were undertaken, and their results communicated to the world. The *Endeavour* was fitted out to observe, at Tahiti, the transit of Venus over the sun's disk; on her

return in 1770, Captain, then Lieutenant Cook, explored the whole E. coast of the *Terra Australis Incognita*, from Cape How to Cape York, not minutely entering into the details of every part, which would have been impossible, but laying down a correct general outline. "He reaped," says Captain Flinders, "the harvest of discovery; but the gleanings of the field remained to be gathered." In his passage through Endeavour Strait, between Cape York and the Prince of Wales' Islands, he not only cleared up the doubt which till then existed, of the actual separation of *Terra Australis* from *New Guinea*, but, by his accurate observations, enabled geographers to assign something like a true place to the former discoveries of the Dutch in these parts.

In 1777 Captain Cook, in the *Resolution* and *Discovery*, visited Van Diemen's Land; but as Captain Furneaux, in His Majesty's ship *Adventure*, had preceded him four years, and Tasman and Marion had examined the coast, little was here supposed to remain for discovery, except in detail. It was long subsequent to Furneaux's visit that Van Diemen's Land was ascertained to be an island; a discovery which may have been retarded by that officer having given an opinion "that there is no strait between New Holland and Van Diemen's Land, but a very deep bay." The existence of such a strait was, however, suspected; but the various attempts to ascertain it, without success, by different navigators from both sides of the coast, seemed to have decided the question in the negative, when Mr Bass, surgeon of the *Reliance*, having observed, as he ran down the E. coast in an open whale boat, that a heavy swell rolled in from the westward, was satisfied in his own mind that such a swell could proceed only from



the great Southern Ocean. To ascertain whether this was the fact, was a point of great importance to the new colony on the eastern coast; and for this purpose Mr Flinders, together with Mr Bass, was sent on this service in a small decked boat. At the end of three months they returned to Port Jackson, with an interesting account of the survey of the coasts of Van Diemen's Land, which they had completely circumnavigated, and thus confirmed the conjecture of Mr Bass, whose name the strait deservedly bears.

The French are entitled to the honour of some partial discoveries on *Terra Australis*. Captain Marion, in the year 1772, was despatched from the Isle of France with two ships, the *Mascarin* and *Marquis de Castries*, on a voyage of discovery, one of the objects of which was that of the supposed southern continent. He touched at Van Diemen's Land, but added little to prior discoveries.

In the year 1792, Rear-Admiral D'Entrecasteaux, having been sent out in search of the unfortunate *La Pérouse*, made the S. coast of New Holland, which he explored as far as the Termination Island of Vancouver. The most important discovery of D'Entrecasteaux was an islet on the S. coast of Van Diemen's Land, which was found to be the entrance into a fine navigable channel, running more than thirty miles to the northward, and there communicating with Storm Bay; containing a series of excellent harbours, or rather one continued harbour the whole way, from beginning to end.

In 1800 Captain Baudin was sent out with two armed vessels on a voyage of discovery nominally *round the world*, but actually, as appears from his instructions, to examine every part of the coasts of New Holland and Van Diemen's

**Land.** The first volume of the account of this voyage was published by M. Péron, one of the naturalists, in 1807; the second never appeared. All the old names of the capes, bays, inlets, and islands, were unblushingly changed to those of Napoleon, his family, his marshals, and members of the Institute; and to 900 leagues of the southern coast, comprehending all the discoveries of Nuyts, Vancouver, D'Entrecasteaux, Flinders, Bass, and Grant, was given the general name of *Terre Napoleon*, while not 50 leagues of real discovery were effected which had not been anticipated by Captain Flinders, who, after losing his ship, and proceeding homewards, was scandalously detained as a prisoner in the Isle of France, "to give time for the previous publication of the voyage of M. Baudin, to prepossess the world that it was to the French nation only the complete discovery and examination of the south coast of Australia was due."

Flinders, however, ultimately triumphed. After a captivity of seven years, he arrived in England in 1810, and in 1814 published his discoveries in two volumes, accompanied with an atlas of charts, which may be regarded as models in maritime surveying. At this time not a single chart of coast, bay, or island, of Captain Baudin's discoveries had appeared, though shortly afterwards an atlas was published by Freycinet, the first lieutenant, differing in their form and structure very little from those of Captain Flinders, but bearing the names recorded in M. Péron's first volume.

To Captain Flinders we owe the completion in detail of the survey of the coasts of New Holland, with the exception of the W. and N.W. coasts, which he was prevented from accomplishing by the loss of his ship. To him also, we are indebted for the very appropriate name of "Aus-

tralia," which is now universally adopted to designate the entire island-continent, instead of the old Dutch name of New Holland.

Some progress was made in the exploration and discovery of the western section after the settlement at Swan River in 1829. Captain Wickham in 1837, and subsequently Mr Stokes in 1839, in H.M.S. Beagle, carried out extensive surveys, in which the latter explored several considerable rivers of the north-west. The largest of them, named the Victoria, flowing into Cambridge Gulf, was afterwards, as we have already stated, traced to its source by Gregory in 1856. Stokes also discovered in Torres Strait a safe channel through the inner passage, at the extreme N. of Australia; while at the extreme S. he rendered the charts of Bass's Strait quite safe for the mariner to navigate by as those of the English Channel.

For 25 years after the settlement was effected at Sydney, the Blue Mountains, which are visible from the heights around Port Jackson, formed the barrier to the government surveyors in their explorations to the westward. This range of mountains, which forms a section of the great Australian Cordillera, was at last surmounted by Mr Evans, a government surveyor, and a path found through the forest in 1813. This discovery led to the occupation of the pastoral lands to the westward; since known to all the world as the Bathurst gold-fields. Three enterprising colonists named Wentworth, Lawson, and Blaxland, were the first to occupy that region with their flocks and herds.

Of these explorations it will be necessary to give a brief abstract. In 1813 Mr Evans prosecuted two successful journeys across the Blue Mountains, to the distance of about

300 miles W. from Sydney. He traced the course of the Macquarie River through the Bathurst plains, and planned out the present town of Bathurst, by the banks of the river.

In May 1815 Mr Evans was despatched a second time across the Blue Mountains to follow the course of the Macquarie River still further into the interior. On this occasion he traced it for about 115 miles from its source, and then returned; reporting as his opinion that the river crossed the entire breadth of the island to its north-western extremity, a distance of 2200 miles in a straight line.

In 1816 Mr Oxley the surveyor-general of the colony, in penetrating into the interior across the Bathurst plains in a S.W. direction, came upon a fine flowing stream which he named the Lachlan; and which has since been found to be one of the great tributaries of the Murray. He followed its course down to  $34^{\circ}$  S. Lat., and  $145. 20.$  E. Long., and traversed the undulating prairie-lands to the southward; besides exploring the western flank of the Peel range, or Coccopara Mountains. On his return, in January 1817, he succeeded in crossing to the eastern waters, when he came upon the Hastings River, which he traced to its outlet at Port Macquarie, about 200 miles N. from Port Jackson.

In 1823 Mr Oxley was despatched to make a survey of Moreton Bay, 500 miles N. from Sydney. He found several considerable streams flowing into the bay; the largest he named the Brisbane, after the governor then in office. This river is navigable for 60 miles, and presents one of the finest deep-flowing streams on the eastern coast. Proceeding further N. he entered Hervey Bay, and explored Port Curtis, where he found a considerable stream, which he named the Boyne.

In 1824-5 explorations were actively pursued to a like distance southward. Messrs Hovell and Hume, two enterprising settlers, who had driven their live stock over the ranges to fresh pastures on the Yass Plains—through which the present road from Sydney to Melbourne passes—animated by the spirit of discovery, pushed on, single-handed, to explore the southern regions. During their journey they passed over a most extensive range of country from the junction of the Murrumbidgee and Yass Rivers to the western shore of Port Phillip. They were the first travellers who crossed the main branch of the greatest known Australian river, which was deservedly named by the colonists after Mr Hume. On its further exploration, however, by Captain Sturt in 1830, when he descended to its termination in a boat, that gallant officer named it the Murray, in compliment to Sir George Murray, who presided over the colonial office at that time.

In 1825 the indefatigable but unfortunate botanist, Allan Cunningham, prosecuted a successful exploration up the valley of the Hunter, and through a gap in the Liverpool ranges, which he called Pandora Pass; where he discovered a fine country, through which a western stream flowed in a northerly direction. In 1827 he crossed the same range of mountains at the source of the N. branch of the Hunter River, and travelled in a northerly direction over the beautiful table-land known as the Liverpool Plains. Continuing his course a little more to the eastward of that region, he traversed a fine grazing country at the elevation of 1500 feet above the level of the sea, which he called New England. Farther N. still he discovered the verdant prairie-lands of Darling Downs, proceeding onwards until he

reached the Lat. of 28. 10. S., having discovered a greater extent of grazing land in New South Wales than any explorer before or since. During the following year, and in 1829, he proceeded to Moreton Bay, and prosecuted a successful journey to the source of the River Brisbane.

In 1828-9 Captain Sturt travelled from Wellington Valley, along the banks of the Macquarie River, and skirted the marshes which absorb that stream—the same which Oxley had deemed interminable—until he found an open and verdant country to the N.W., with several small streams flowing in that direction. His further researches were rewarded by the discovery of the Darling, the greatest tributary of the Murray; its source verging upon tropical Australia. Having ascertained the course of this important river, which he followed down as far as 30. 20. S. Lat. and 145. 40. E. Long., he returned, impressed with the idea that it, as well as all the western streams, flowed into an inland sea; a favourite hypothesis of geographers at the time.

With a view to determine this point, and the course of the Murrumbidgee River, or the outlet of its waters, this enterprising officer started a second time in January 1831; and the result has been, that instead of the Darling and the Lachlan, and other streams that run to the westward, falling into a great inland sea or extensive marsh, as was conjectured, their united waters constitute a large river, which, under the name of Murray, was found to turn to the southward, and empty itself into an extensive estuary, 60 miles in length, by 30 or 40 in width. The river, near the point where it fell into this lake or estuary, was about 400 yards wide and 20 feet deep. The whole country on both banks was composed of undulating and picturesque hills, at the

bases of which extended plains and valleys, within sight of many thousand acres of the richest soils.

The mouth through which the waters of the estuary communicates with the sea was in Encounter Bay, in Long. 130. 40. E. and Lat. 35. 25. 15. S., a little to the eastward of the Gulf of St Vincent, and round the point named Cape Jervis. The river was well stocked with fish, and its banks more populous than any other part of the country that had been traversed. Some accounts state the total number of aborigines seen to have amounted to at least 4000. They could scarcely be brought to believe that the discovering party were of the same genus as themselves; they placed their hands against those of the strangers, in order to ascertain if the number of fingers on each corresponded. Nothing surprised them more than the act of taking off the hat, believing, it would seem, that the superstructure of *felt* formed a part of the strange animal that had come into their country.

In 1831, while those explorations were opening up a knowledge of Eastern Australia, the government of the new colony of Swan River in Western Australia, despatched Captain Bannister to explore the country between that settlement and King George's Sound. Several other expeditions were subsequently prosecuted to the N.W. of that territory by Captain Grey and others, which added much information concerning the coasts and bays up to that time visited only by Tasman, Dampier, Baudin, and King.

In 1832 Major (afterwards Sir Thomas L.) Mitchell, surveyor-general of the colony, was instructed by the government to proceed on a journey of discovery to the N.W. of Liverpool Plains, in search of a great stream reported by a

captured bushranger to exist in that direction. No such river could be discovered. The party, however, explored a large tract of indifferent country on the upper branch of the Darling River, which, no doubt, was the great stream of the bushranger, called by him the Karaula. The ability and energy displayed by Major Mitchell in this expedition induced the government to fit out an exploring party under his command upon an extensive scale, having for its object the thorough survey of the Darling and its tributaries. The expedition started from Bathurst in 1835, more fully equipped for the journey than any which had started previously in the colony. Major Mitchell was ably seconded in his scientific arrangements by the assistance of the botanist Allan Cunningham. Within a few weeks, however, of their departure, that estimable man fell a sacrifice to his scientific enthusiasm. While the leader and his men were surveying the Bogan River in about Lat. 32. S., he was lost from the main body of the party in his ramblings for plants through the interminable wilderness; and from subsequent facts which came to light, there is every reason to believe that he was murdered by the natives. In memory of his sad fate and invaluable services to the colony, the government have erected an obelisk in the Botanic Garden at Sydney. Major Mitchell reluctantly left the spot where his companion had been missed, and traced the Bogan River down to its confluence with the Darling. Below this junction he erected a stockade which he called Fort Bourke, and from thence surveyed the Darling as far as Lat. 32. 34. S. The fort he found useful as a resting-place on his return homewards.

In 1836 Major Mitchell accomplished a still greater journey into the interior from Bathurst; he followed the course



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of the Lachlan along its northern bank. After surveying its junction with the Murrumbidgee, and tracing the latter stream to its confluence with the Murray, as previously explored by Sturt, he followed that river in its N.W. course till he found its clear waters mingling with the turbid stream of the Darling, in Lat. 34. 10. From this point he traced the Murray River upwards, crossing the stream to its southern bank a short distance below its junction with the Murrumbidgee; after which he continued surveying upwards to Lat. 36. S. From this point he left the Murray and its tributaries, and journeyed in a S.W. direction across several small streams which he found flowing to the N. In Lat. 37. 10. he came upon a considerable stream flowing to the S. This river he navigated in a canvas boat down nearly to its outlet in the sea; and named it the Glenelg River (in honour of the colonial secretary, Lord Glenelg), which will be found on the map to be situated in Victoria, crossing the boundary between that colony and South Australia, and disemboguing itself into the sea a few miles farther to the west. After surveying this outlet he proceeded eastward towards Portland Bay; and was surprised on his journey thither to encounter two gentlemen driving "tandem" through the beautiful forest lands as leisurely as if they had been in Hyde Park, where he expected to meet with no inhabitants but hostile aborigines. These travellers belonged to a whaling station at Portland Bay, which had been established in 1834 by the enterprising Brothers Henty, merchants and bankers of Lancaster, Tasmania. Since that period it has risen into a flourishing government town. Mitchell's further discoveries to the eastward were likewise forestalled by information he received,

that a number of settlers from Van Diemen's Land had colonized the shores of Port Phillip during the previous year. On his journey back to Sydney, however, he explored that magnificent territory—the garden of Australia, which he denominated Australia Felix, from its agreeable aspect and fertility.

In 1840 Count Strzlecki, an adventurous traveller of great reputation in other lands, and devoted to geological pursuits, made a successful though harassing journey on foot from the Murrumbidgee River southwards through the Australian Alps, and across the Gipps' Land district to Alberton in Corner Inlet; from whence he penetrated through the densest and widest "scrub" or brushwood in Australia, which had hitherto baffled all the settlers and surveyors. His *Physical Description of New South Wales* is at once the most scientific work on Australian geology and mineralogy, and the most practical treatise on Australian agriculture which has hitherto been published.

In 1840 the government of the new colony of South Australia despatched Edward John Eyre from Adelaide, overland to King George's Sound, through the territory denominated Nuyts' Land on the map. He and his party accomplished the journey, after encountering great privations and disasters, some of his party having sunk through sheer fatigue, and their aboriginal guide having been lost. In 1841 he likewise conducted an expedition of discovery towards the interior from Spencer's Gulf. From that point he found a shallow marshy lake, about 20 miles in breadth, extending, in a serpentine form, 400 miles into the interior. This substitute for "the great inland sea," so confidently expected by geographers, he named Lake Torrens. After

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reaching 29. S. Lat., he returned without crossing the Tropic of Capricorn, the main object of its expedition.

In 1844-5-6 the great purpose of inland exploration, to ascertain the nature of the country in Central Australia, was determined by the "father of Australian discovery," Captain Sturt. From Adelaide he penetrated due north into the very centre of the island, where he almost perished in the drought and sterility of a second Sahara. The results of this journey gave rise to a general opinion that Central Australia was entirely desert, until Sturt's successful expedition in 1860 already alluded to.

In 1843, an unobtrusive botanist of the name of Dr Ludwig Leichhardt arrived at Sydney from Moreton Bay—where he had been devoting himself to Australian botany and zoology—and solicited the public support to fit out an expedition for the purpose of crossing overland from Moreton Bay to Port Essington. He was successful in obtaining public subscriptions of sufficient amount to fit out himself, five Europeans, and an aboriginal native, ultimately increased by another volunteer and a black man, making in all eight individuals, who, with a most slender equipment, started from the Darling Downs on the 30th September 1844, to prosecute this distant journey through an unknown country for 3000 miles. This gallant little band reached their destination on the 17th December 1845, after a journey of fifteen months.

In 1846, while the intrepid Leichhardt and his companions had been given up for lost by the people of New South Wales—who were not apprised of his success until his own return by sea on the 29th March of that year—the sanction of the home government had been obtained to fit

out a previously proposed expedition of Sir Thomas Mitchell for the same purpose. Sir Thomas altered his plans upon learning the result of Leichardt's expedition. Keeping to the westward of Leichardt's route, he came upon what appeared to be the source of a large river, flowing in a north-westerly direction, which he felt convinced was the upper branch of the Victoria, discovered by Wickham and Stokes, flowing into Cambridge Gulf. After tracing this stream towards Central Australia for about 150 miles, our sanguine explorer left the further prosecution of this enterprize, on his return to Sydney, to his able and accomplished junior on the surveying staff, Edmund B. Kennedy. He shortly afterwards sailed for England, full of the conviction that he had discovered a great highway from Eastern Australia to India by an inland navigable river. Like his predecessor Evans, in his speculations on the course of the Macquarie, he was doomed to be disappointed; for soon after Mr Kennedy found that the supposed Victoria suddenly turned to the southward and became absorbed in the great Australian desert, in the same manner that Oxley found the Macquarie vanish among the marshes.

In 1847, after Mr Kennedy had returned from his fruitless survey of the Victoria River, the government acquiesced in the suggestions of that gentleman, and other members of the survey department, to prosecute short exploratory journeys into the interior and the northern parts of Australia, as a better method of completing the survey of the country than by long and hazardous expeditions. Mr Kennedy's plan was to survey that part of tropical Australia situated between Cape York in Lat. 10° 48' S., and Rock-

ingham Bay in Lat. 18. 10., a distance by ordinary travelling of not more than 500 miles. But this country, within the influence of the tropical rains, is apparently of such an impassable nature from swamps and prickly scrubs, and so thickly inhabited by hostile aborigines, that this expedition proved to be the most perilous and calamitous of any hitherto attempted in Australia of which we have any record. Out of thirteen persons who started from Rockingham Bay on 5th June 1848, one man alone—Mr Kennedy's aboriginal servant, Jackey Jackey—reached Port Albany after a six months' journey, where a small schooner, the *Ariel*, commanded by Captain Dobson, was lying at anchor with stores on board, waiting the arrival of the party.

The greatest in contemplation of these exploring expeditions, the melancholy result of which has long ceased to be matter of doubt, was that led on by the zealous and indomitable Leichardt. We have already mentioned his return from his successful expedition to Port Essington in March 1846. Not having then accomplished his original design of penetrating into Central Australia, he rested but a brief space in the settled districts until he was again rallying a band of adventurers round his standard of discovery. "His project was to penetrate to the westward, if practicable, across the great desert. to the settlement of Swan River, a distance little short of 3000 miles in a direct line, hoping to find by the way a succession of oases, like those in the African or Arabian deserts, which would enable him to recruit his party on the journey." After making a false start in 1847, when some of his volunteers, whose enthusiasm quailed before the privations in store for them, abandoned the expedition, he finally left the Darling

Downs in the early part of 1848. Since that year, no certain tidings have reached us from this gallant band of explorers. The later explorations of Australia, the reader will find above, where we have endeavoured to bring into one view all the more recent events and circumstances of this division of the world.

*Aborigines.*—The aborigines, wherever they have been met with, are of the very lowest description of human beings. In the journal of the Duyfhen, the N. coast is described as thinly “inhabited by wild, cruel, black savages, by whom some of the crew were murdered ;” and the ship Vianen, touching on the western coast about 21° S., observed “a foul and barren shore, green fields, and very wild, black, barbarous inhabitants.” In 24° S., Polsert, who commanded the Batavia, saw four natives, whom he describes as “wild, black, and altogether naked, not covering even those parts which almost all savages conceal.” Tasman “found in *Hollandia Nova*, in Lat. 17. 12. S., a naked black people, with curly hair, malicious and cruel, using for arms bows and arrows, hazagaeyes, and kalawaeyes.” The S. coast is so barren, and the naked hillocks of sands so continuous, that there appears to be nothing for human inhabitants to subsist upon. “It is not surprising,” says D’Entrecasteaux, “that Nuyts has given no details of this barren coast ; for its aspect is so uniform, that the most fruitful imagination could find nothing to say of it.” None of our navigators, however, saw more than the coast line, which is either of rock or hillocks of sand. But where the country begins to improve towards the eastward, in the neighbourhood of Kangaroo Island, Captain Flinders found not the least vestige of inhabitants ; and, from the stupidity of the kangaroos on that island, “which,” he observes, “not unfrequently appeared to consider us as seals,” he concludes there either were no natives, or that they were ignorant of every kind of embarkation. Towards the northern part of the eastern coast, the same navigator thinks they are somewhat superior to those near Sydney, having belts round the waist, and fillets about the head and upper part of the arm, associating in greater numbers, and dwelling in huts of a superior construction. They also catch fish with nets, which he thinks is alone a feature of distinction from those who only spear the fish, as a net requires more than one person to manage it,

consumes much time in making, cannot easily be dragged about, and, in short, must occasion a sense of the advantage to be derived from mutual assistance, and suggest the necessity of a permanent residence.

Notwithstanding these evidences of social progression from the lowest depths of the savage state, and which may be accounted for amongst the tribes inhabiting the great York Peninsula, from their contiguity to the superior races of mankind peopling New Guinea and the Polynesian Islands, the ethnologist can discover clear and distinctive characteristics in the Australian aboriginal people to warrant him in classifying them as the *furthest removed* type of humanity from any other race with whom we are acquainted. Their general description may be given thus, according to European notions on the standard of humanity, as exemplified in the northern varieties of mankind. They are hideously ugly, with flat noses, having wide nostrils; eyes deeply sunk in the head, large and wide apart, over-shadowed by bushy black eye-brows; the hair black and straight, clotted but not woolly, the males having long curly beards; the mouth is extravagantly wide, with thick prominent lips; and the colour of the skin varies from dark bronze to jet black. The skull and jaws, when stripped of the hair, integuments, and muscles, present still more distinct characteristics. The cranium is thick and spongy, the inner and outer plates being wide apart, the coronal region flattened. By external admeasurement the capacity of a male skull now in our possession—which was that of a native doctor who died about forty years of age, and furnishes us with a type of these Australian crania *above the average*—is 117 cubic inches; which, when compared with the average size of Anglo-Saxon crania—according to Mr Straton's tables—scarcely equals the admeasurement of a boy ten years of age, laid down by him at 120 cubic inches. The facial angle, according to Count Strzlecki, is between  $80^{\circ}$  and  $85^{\circ}$ . The zygomatic process is widely arched; and the lower jaw, although unusually expanded at the base, is short, and forms a remarkably small chin. The molar teeth are flattened more than ordinarily, and sometimes are so smoothly ground by friction in chewing that they frequently resemble the teeth of ruminating animals. Their stature is below the average of the most diminutive European race; and they are wretchedly thin and ill-made, with long lean arms and legs, and short wide feet, the great toe largely developed—

which is strengthened to a wonderful degree by use from their youth, in placing that member in the notches they cut with a tomahawk on the trees, when in search of animals for food.

To add to their natural deformity, they thrust a bone through the cartilage of the nose, and stick with gum to their hair, matted with moss, the teeth of men, sharks, or kangaroos, the tails of dogs, jaw-bones of fish, &c., and daub their faces and bodies with red and white clay, and scarify the skin in every part with sharp shells.

On the sea-coast they live principally upon fish, turtle, and shell-fish; the former are caught by nets, hooks, and speared by double and treble pronged spears. In the interior they hunt the kangaroo, wallaby, and emu, with their boomerangs, spears, and waddies; besides which they procure an uncertain supply of opossums, flying squirrels, sloths, storks, cranes, ducks, parrots, cockatoos, eels, lizards, snakes, grubs, ants and their eggs, tuberous roots, wild berries, and honey; in fine, any description of creature or plant from the animal or vegetable world, which can supply any nutriment, does not come amiss to the appetites of these attenuated savages. Nay more, although man be described specifically as a "cooking animal," the Australian, in his natural state, scarcely troubles himself with this process, beyond that of throwing a bird or beast on the burning embers of a fire, without skinning it or drawing the entrails; and when it is partially roasted, brushing the singed hair or feathers off, tearing a mouthful or two with his teeth, and throwing it into the fire again to cook another portion of it; when this process of mastication is repeated until the bones are picked.

They have no fixed habitations, the climate generally allowing of their sleeping in the open air, in the crevices of rocks, or under the shelter of the bushes. Their temporary hovels consist of the bark of a tree, or a few bushes interwoven in a semicircular form, tapering at the top, and raised upon a prop-stick, open in front, and forming merely a breakweather, occasionally large enough to shelter six persons from the rain, but most frequently for the accommodation of two. They seem to have no idea of the benefits arising from social life; their largest clans extend not beyond the family circle, of each of which the eldest is called by a name synonymous with that of *father*. They are totally without religion, paying neither the least respect nor adoration to any object or



being, real or imaginary. Hence they have nothing to prompt them to a good action, nothing to deter them from a bad one; hence murder is not considered as any heinous crime, and women think nothing of destroying, by compression, the infant in the womb, to avoid the trouble, if brought alive into the world, of carrying it about and finding it subsistence. Should a woman die with an infant at the breast, the living child is inhumanly thrown into the same hole with the mother, and covered with stones, of which the brutal father throws the first. They are savage even in love, the very first act of courtship, on the part of the husband, being that of knocking down his intended bride with a club, and dragging her away from her friends, bleeding and senseless, to the woods. The consequence is, that scarcely a female of the age of maturity is to be seen without her head full of scars, the unequivocal marks of her husband's affection.

To these details, generally acknowledged by all travellers, such as Collins, Flinders, Sturt, Mitchell, and others, we shall add some further observations, based upon experience and scientific data, which have escaped their notice, as illustrative of the ethnographic characteristics of this barbarous people. So various are the languages spoken by the entire radius of tribes located outside the great desert—which, we presume, is untenanted by human beings,—that a subdivision of the east and west coasts into lingual districts fifty miles in diameter for 300 miles inland, would give in each district not merely a distinct dialect, but in the majority of cases a different *language* from that of the adjacent tribes. One universal affinity, however, which we have observed these languages bear towards each other is, that the letter S is never found in the construction of their words. No evidences of tilling the ground, planting, sowing seed, and reaping the harvest, have been seen by travellers amongst them; which distinguishes them essentially from the Maori race in New Zealand, the races inhabiting the Polynesian Islands to the N.E., and the Malays to the N.W., excepting the tribes located on the extreme north coast.\* They do not trade or barter with each other or with strangers. Though each family or tribe has a generally recognised boundary within which they hunt, and consider their "sit-down" or territory, and beyond which they seldom stray, still they neither exchange, buy, nor sell land among each other; and when their territory was taken possession of by the British, they demanded no equivalent, as the

New Zealanders have done—they cannot conceive a right of claim to that which is fixed and immovable. Not having any movable property beyond their spears, boomerangs, clubs, shields, opossum-skin rugs, and baskets, their *wealth* is less than that of the industrious bee, and their idea of property inferior to that of the beaver. These rudely-constructed articles of clothing, and weapons of offence and defence, they appear to divide promiscuously among each other, holding possession very much on the old lawless principle that “he may take who hath the will, and he may keep who can.” Lunatics or idiots are rarely or never to be found amongst them. Slavery, as understood in the negro sense of the term, does not exist; the married females, however, are to all intents and purposes the slaves of their husbands: virtue and modesty are terms to them, in their purely savage state, utterly unintelligible. Polygamy is recognised and adopted; but from their savage custom of murdering infant female children, the proportion of the sexes is kept nearly equal, and seldom permits of more than one of each cohabiting together. Cannibalism exists among them. The writer has had proofs of several instances; this horrible practice, however, was confined to the bodies of their enemies killed in fight, and of half-caste children of the female sex. They show very little affection for their offspring, especially the males; and we have frequently taxed their philoprogenitive feelings by offering a few pieces of tobacco or a blanket for a child, when we should have easily succeeded in bartering with their fathers, and with no great difficulty overcome the affection of the mothers. Their treatment of the aged is even worse than their neglect of their offspring. These wretched specimens of humanity look at the age of 50 or 60 like octogenarians. Instead of being respected as elders of the tribe, as is the case among other savage races, they are considered as useless members who can no longer fight, hunt, or dig up roots. Hence the garbage of the game captured by the strong son or daughter is thrown with contempt to the father or mother; and they are even prohibited, like the children, from eating the best kinds of food, which the sturdy warriors of the tribe claim as theirs by the law of might. Rheumatism and diseases of the skin are their most prevalent complaints; the result of continual exposure to the weather, and their filthy habits. In every group or tribe of families there is a doctor-man, who uses charms, decoctions of herbs, and personal manipulation to cure the afflicted.

In all such services rendered for the general welfare of the whole, or even in any other matter of assistance given to each other, we have never known of any sort of remuneration being tendered, or any special expression of gratitude coming from the patient. That they are capable of being civilized in a measure is shown by the organized troops of black mounted police throughout the south-eastern colonies, and the general employment of them by the colonists as shepherds and mounted herdsmen; nay, so far as intellectual advancement is concerned, in a few instances they have been taught to read and write. But at the best they are uncertain retainers, and cannot be kept to constant labour, while they have a very faint conception of the relations between master and servant. We are confident, also, that the Australian aboriginal would pine and die under any attempts to enslave him by means of the lash and the fetters, which the passive African submits to. Like most other savages, however, they exhibit the extremes of indolence when their appetite is satiated, and of activity when hunger prompts them to hunt for food. Treachery and cunning among them are considered virtues and it is no disparagement to designate them morally speaking, a generation of liars. The truth is not in them; in their relations with the Europeans no faith can be placed in what they say, and the local governments take exception to their evidence in a court of justice, or, at the utmost, value it but slightly.

This unfavourable delineation of the general characteristics of the Australian race, before they have mingled with the European settlers, is one, however, of the faithfulness of which we can confidently challenge disproof. They have, on the other hand, their redeeming qualities. Expert in the capture of game and fish, they will cheerfully share their meals with an unsuccessful neighbour, and will seldom refuse the white man a share—from whom, however, they expect an equivalent. Like children, they are easily pleased; and when their appetites are satisfied, they become a jocular and merry race, full of mimicry and laughter. The sounds of hilarity are often heard ringing joyously through the echoing forests around their encamping grounds: and the delight with which they enjoy the pleasures of the dance at their *corroborees* is not exceeded by the most enthusiastic frequenters at Almacks. Their conceptions of harmony and melody are very low, and they have no instrument, however rude, to produce musical intonations.

Their wild yells of glee, and monotonous *crooning* songs, are reduced to a barbarous kind of measure by striking two pieces of wood together at long and short intervals. As exceptional cases of a better nature (our previous remarks having strictly reference to the Australian aboriginal in his purely savage condition), we can speak of many instances where feelings of great tenderness have been shown, by the females more especially, and European life and property have been voluntarily rescued from fire and shipwreck. We can likewise testify to the fact of finding faithful and honest followers among them during our travels in the interior. We treated them as *children*, and they were obedient; had we resented supposed injuries they tried to inflict upon us, as if they were responsible *men*, as some have done, we should have exposed ourselves to their deadly enmity. In our transactions with them we dealt on the principle which they themselves considered just. The fidelity and devotion of Jackey Jackey towards the unfortunate explorer Kennedy, are sufficient in themselves to prove that the rudiments of a better nature than they ordinarily display are implanted in their minds.

The history of this race is comprised within a small compass. Records they have none, and their traditions are as evanescent as their dwellings; and like the summer fires, which sweep every vestige of these rude structures from the face of the earth, so their history is buried in oblivion with each succeeding generation. In a preceding part of this article we have made an estimate of the entire aboriginal population of Australia. In successive estimates of this kind, we must allow for rapid decrease in the colonized territory, and this territory is each year more extensive. To estimate their present population is likewise a matter of uncertainty. Some morbid philanthropists, who have formed associations for the preservation of these races, attribute their extinction to the aggressions by fire and sword upon them by the settlers, and the deadly diseases they introduce. Although to some extent this may be the case, still there is a more powerful influence at work, which ultimately will cause the inferior race to be swallowed up by the superior. Count Strzlecki states his views in these terms:—"The aboriginal woman, after connection with a European male, loses the power of conception on a renewal of intercourse with the male of her own race, retaining that of only procreating with the white man." From our own investigations,

and the testimony of others whom we have consulted, we cannot adduce evidence sufficient to corroborate this statement.\* The facts are before us that the aboriginal inhabitants of Van Diemen's Land have dwindled down, from between 4000 and 5000 to 15 persons, notwithstanding the efforts of the Government to preserve them; whereas, in that time, the same number of our prolific countrymen in the neighbouring isle, would in all likelihood increase tenfold. The tribe also that inhabited the country around Port Jackson and Botany Bay, which Governor Phillip on his arrival found to number about 1500 individuals, is now extinct. The last of its members died in 1849, little more than 60 years after the occupation of their lands by the Anglo-Saxon. These facts are startling, and demand further investigation.

If the rocks and mountains, and the earths, resemble nearly the inorganic substances that are met with in other parts of the world, there is at least a very extraordinary and a distinct characteristic difference in both the animal and vegetable part of the creation, which makes a considerable class of subjects in both these kingdoms peculiar to Australia. The Fauna and Flora of this arid region are so unique, so far removed in their nature and habits from the generality of species which exist in other parts of the world, so low in the scale of classified animals and plants, and bearing so close an affinity in their structure to the extinct tribes and genera whose fossil remains are found imbedded in European rocks of the eocene geological period, that some ethnologists are tempted to advance the hypothesis that Australia exhibits the most ancient surface-geology for our investigations of any portion of the terraqueous globe. In other words, that this great south land

\* It may be remarked that the assertions of Strzlecki on this subject are more than doubtful, and are at variance with all analogy respecting sexual intercourse between other races of mankind. The same notion once prevailed regarding the negro and white varieties of the human species; but it is not founded on fact. The barrenness of the aboriginal females, under such circumstances, will excite little surprise, when we consider the well-known effect of promiscuous sexual intercourse in checking fecundity; while the rapid decrease of the Australian native population is further explicable by the frequent practice of infanticide, especially of female children, the excessive labour exacted from their women, the introduction of epidemic disorders by Europeans, and immoderate indulgence in intoxicating liquors.—Ed.

has existed, upheaved from the ocean, contemporary with the by-gone epochs of the palæozoic formation, which at a recent geological era was submerged below the sea; and that its groups of living creatures, and its vegetation, have been perpetuated throughout subsequent epochs which have extinguished whole genera of animals and plants in the northern hemisphere. The recent investigations of naturalists in Australia and the surrounding seas have shown that certain forms of star-fishes and bivalve shells, found petrified in the chalk formations of Europe, have existing types in the tropical seas of Australia, and that the Port Jackson shark is the only living example of the ancient group of *Cestrionte* fishes. And while the superficial observer perceives, in the apparently anomalous examples of plants in the grasses and gum-trees,—and animals, in the kangaroo and duck-billed platypus,—a mere assemblage of *lusus naturæ*, when compared with the productions of other regions, the attentive student of natural history finds at every step some useful harmony between the individuals of the organic kingdoms, and the peculiar physical geography of this great southern land. Here he finds the grasses containing an unusual pith in their stems, from which they derive nourishment during the dry seasons which occur in this arid climate, when the hollow-stemmed grasses of Europe would perish. And when he examines the structure of that curious animal the duck-billed platypus (*Ornithorhynchus paradoxus*), he discovers that its organism is peculiar to the manner in which it secures food from the water insects, where, in its burrowings in the earth, scarcely any worms are to be found. These, and other anomalous forms of the organic world in Australia, are doubtless reconcilable to the universally harmonious system of nature, and require only further investigation to be made manifest.

*Animals.*—The animals hitherto discovered, with very few exceptions, are of the numerous species of kangaroo or the various opossum type; the former having their hinder legs long out of all proportion when compared with the length of the fore-legs, and both families being *Marsupial*, that is, having a sack under the belly of the female for the reception of the young; of which families, though divided into different genera, there are at least a hundred distinct species. To these marsupial genera may be added another of a singular kind, classed by naturalists under the genus *As*, represented by the wom-

bat of the natives, or the native bear of the colonists, a herbivorous animal of the sloth kind. Of carnivorous animals, there are very few. The dingo or native dog has some resemblance to the English fox in its appearance and predatory habits, and is the dread of the sheep-farmer. It is supposed, however, not to be indigenous; and with the buffalo, which is found on the northern coast, has no doubt been brought by the Malays, who cross over to fish for trepang, from Java, Timor, and other islands in the Indian Archipelago, as it exhibits very little specific difference from the jackal of these countries. The feline tribe is represented by several species of yellow-spotted cats; and these pretty nearly complete the catalogue of Australian quadrupeds. One animal, however, deserves some specific notice, from the discussions that have arisen regarding the nature and uses of the unusual organic structure of its head: we allude to the duck-billed water-mole of the colonists (*Ornithorhynchus paradoxus*, or *Platypus anatinus*); "a quadruped," says the late Dr White of the British Museum, "with the beak of a bird, which is contrary to known facts and received opinions." The investigations, however, of modern scientific men, have discovered that even this apparent paradox of nature, "setting the bill of a bird upon the head of a quadruped," is in harmony with her laws. This organ, although it has the same function as the bill of a duck, is not, like that appendage, affixed to the skeleton, but merely attached to the skin. It was by Cuvier, along with a somewhat similar Australian animal, the *Echidna*, ranked among the *Edentata*; but now they are both more usually arranged as a distinct class of mammals termed *Monotremata*. They approach the marsupials in possessing the abdominal bones of that order, though they have not the pouch; and they approximate mammals to birds, in possessing a common *cloaca*. The *Echidna* has also a bill-formed mouth, and spines like those of a hedgehog on its body. Australia, at the present period, is the great metropolis of the order. The flying phalangiers (*Phalangista*) are likewise an interesting and beautiful group of marsupials. Crocodiles, turtles, and yangan, or dugong, one of the Cetaceæ, inhabit the rivers and harbours of tropical Australia; and in the southern, eastern, and western streams, large fish of the perch tribe abound. The seas swarm with scaled fish and crustacea; many of them edible, others poisonous, and some of the most brilliant colours. Reptiles are frequently met with, but not abundant. There are several species of

snakes; some are venomous, but the majority are harmless. Lizards are more plentiful, and all of them harmless; while a large species of iguana affords the natives a delicate kind of food.

The birds are equally singular with the beasts, there being black swans and white eagles; the former everywhere in such multitudes as to spoil a proverb that had held good for two thousand years; and their song, as described by Mr Bass, "exactly resembles the creaking of a rusty sign on a windy day." The *Mænura superba*, with its scalloped tail feathers, is perhaps the most singular and beautiful of that graceful species known by the name of *birds of paradise*; ducks, pigeons, cockatoos, parrots, and parakeets, are innumerable, and of great variety and beauty. The mountain eagle is a magnificent creature, and the emu is, next to the ostrich, the tallest bird that exists, many of them standing full 6 feet high; and the insect creation presents strange and brilliant forms.

*Plants.*—The plants are no less singular than the animals. Of these the distinguished botanist, Mr Brown, has given a very curious and instructive account in his "Geographical and Systematical Remarks," in the Appendix to Flinders' *Voyage*. He collected nearly 3900 species of Australasian plants, which, with those brought to England by Sir Joseph Banks and others, supplied him with the materials for a *Flora terræ Australis*, consisting of 4200 species, referable to 120 natural orders; but he remarks that more than half the number of species belong to *eleven* only of those orders. Of the *Eucalyptus* or gum-tree, the largest yet discovered, there are not fewer than 100 different species. "The *Eucalyptus globulus* of Labillardière," says Mr Brown, "and another species, peculiar to the south of Van Diemen's Land, not unfrequently attain the height of 150 feet, with a girth near the base of from 25 to 40 feet. Of this magnificent genus there are fifty different species within the limits of the colony around Sydney. Of the beautiful and elegant *Melaleuca*, Mr Brown collected upwards of thirty species, all of which, with the exception of the two species *Leucodendron* and *Cajaputi*, appear to be confined to Terra Australis. The tribe of *Stackhouseæ* is entirely peculiar to that country. Of the natural order of *Proteaceæ*, consisting of about 400 known species, more than 200 are natives of New Holland, of which they form one of its characteristic botanical features; the *Banksia*, in particular, being one of



the most striking peculiarities of the vegetable kingdom. The *Casuarina*, of which thirteen species have been discovered, is another characteristic feature of the woods and thickets of Australia. The most extensive genus, however, is the apetalous *Acacia*, of which there are more than 100 species; and this, with the *Eucalyptus*, "if taken together," says Mr Brown, "and considered with respect to the mass of vegetable matter they contain, calculated from the size as well as from the number of individuals, are perhaps nearly equal to all the other plants of that country." The *Casuarina* and *Eucalyptus* are represented as furnishing excellent timber for ship-building, and for all the purposes of domestic furniture and agricultural implements; the gum of the *Eucalyptus* is medicinal; and that of one species might be employed as pitch. Freycinet says they procured a resinous substance from the *Xanthorrhoea*, which served them to caulk their vessels. The bark of a tree (*Acacia dealbata*) is known to be more efficacious in tanning leather than the oak-bark; and a shrub (*Leptospermum scoparium*) was used by Captain Cook as a substitute for tea. Nutmegs were found by Flinders on the northern coast, but they were small, and had so little of an aromatic flavour, that Mr Brown gave the plant the specific name of *insipida*. Among the curious productions of the vegetable world is the *Nepenthes distillatoria*, or pitcher-plant, of which a very correct and detailed drawing is given in the Atlas to Flinders's *Voyage*. The pines of the genus *Araucaria* have the double-dotted vascular tissue of the carboniferous *Coniferae*. The *Eucalypti* or gum-trees shed their bark annually instead of their leaves; while the latter hang vertically from the branches, instead of horizontally, as in most English forest-trees: and the *Casuarinae*, or she-oak trees, have the jointed articulations of *Hippuris* instead of leaves. Altogether, the anomalous characters of Australian botany, though presenting organic phenomena distinct from those of the northern hemisphere, are in harmony with the branches of the animal kingdom already alluded to. Since Brown's *Prodromus* was published in 1810, very little has been added to that profound work. And it is a remarkable fact, that few genera, if any, have been discovered since that eminent botanist, and his patron Sir Joseph Banks, first collected the plants of Botany Bay. Although Cunningham, Labillardière, and others, have added materially to the list of species, there is still a vast region open to botanic enterprise, especially in the unexplored mountain ranges of the great Australian Cordillera.

## II.—GENERAL VIEW OF TASMANIA.

Having marked the progressive discovery of this fair and fertile island, until it was ascertained to be such by Tasman, Marion, Furneaux, Cook, D'Entrecasteaux, Bass, and Flinders, we shall not think it necessary to notice the minor discoveries of Bligh, Hunter, Cox, &c., but proceed to give a general account of its dimensions, surface, and natural productions. It is situated between the parallels of 41. 0. and 43. 32. S. Lat., and 144. 32. and 148. 25. E. Long.; its medial length from N. to S. being about 160, and breadth from E. to W, 145 geographical miles. Its surface possesses every variety of mountain, hill and dale,—of forests and open meadows,—of inland lakes, rivers, and inlets of the sea, forming safe and commodious harbours,—that can render a country valuable or agreeable; and it enjoys a temperate climate, which is perhaps not very different from that of England, though less subject to violent changes.

The soil, in general, is represented as more productive than that of the E. side of Australia; and the island has the advantage of being intersected by two fine rivers, rising near the centre; the one named the Tamar, falling into Bass's Strait on the N., and forming Port Dalrymple; the other, the Derwent, which discharges itself into the sea on the S.E. extremity, spreading its waters, in the first instance, over the Great Storm Bay, which communicates with North Bay, Norfolk Bay, and Double Bay, on the E., and with D'Entrecasteaux's Channel on the W. The Tamar in its course receives three streams—the North Esk, the South Esk, and the Lake River; and the tide flows about 30 miles up the river, to the point where it is

joined by the two Esks. At this spot is situated the considerable port of Launceston, having a population of about 7000. At the head of the western arm of Port Dalrymple is situated George Town, on the skirt of a beautiful, rich, and well-wooded country. There is also Hobarton, which is the capital of the colony on the right bank of the Derwent, about 5 miles inland, with a population, in 1860, of 20,000 inhabitants. The country between these two towns is everywhere rich and beautiful, abounding in grassy plains, marshes, and lakes, bounded on each side by hills, well clothed with wood, rising into high and rocky mountains. A turnpike road now bisects the island between Launceston and Hobarton—a distance of 130 miles, which is accomplished by stage-coaches within twelve hours.

The description given by D'Entrecasteaux of the channel that bears his name, and the surrounding shores, corresponds generally with the following animated account of it from M. Péron, ten years afterwards: "Crowded on the surface of the soil are seen on every side those beautiful *Mimosas*, those superb *Metrosideros*, those *Correas*, unknown till of late to our country, but now become the pride of our shrubberies. From the shores of the ocean to the summits of the highest mountains may be observed the mighty *Eucalyptus*, those giant trees of Australasian forests, many of which measure from 162 to 180 feet in height, and from 25 to 30, and even 36 feet in circumference. *Banksia* of different species—the *Protea*, the *Embothria*, the *Leptosperma*—form an enchanting belt round the skirts of the forests. Here the *Casuarina* exhibits its beautiful form; there the elegant *Exocarpus* throws into a hundred different places its negligent branches. Everywhere spring up the most delightful thickets of *Melaleuca*, *Thesium*, *Conchylum*, *Evodia*, all equally interesting, either from their graceful shape, the lovely verdure of their foliage, the singularity of their corollas, or the form of their seed-vessels."—*Voy. aux Torres Australes*.

All the navigators who have visited the southern port of Van Diemen's Land describe the natives as a mild, affable, good-

humoured, and inoffensive people; with the exception of Marion, the effect of whose fire-arms, Labillardière thinks, had made them afraid of Europeans. Subsequently the settlers found them a hostile and treacherous race, probably from the same cause. Flinders and Bass conceived that the natives of this island were sunk still lower in the scale of human existence than those in the neighbourhood of Port Jackson, though they saw but one man, and he is described as having "a countenance more expressive of benignity and intelligence than of that ferocity or stupidity which generally characterised the other natives." They are obviously the same people as those of Australia. The women refused from Cook's people all presents, and rejected all their addresses, not so much from a sense of virtue, it was supposed, as from the fear of the men, of whom they stood in great awe. With the convicts and free settlers they had free intercourse. In some places were found miserable huts of twigs, and rude baskets made of a juncus or rush; but these were all the signs that appeared of civilization. Cook, D'Entrecasteaux, and Baudin, all observed many of the largest trees with trunks hollowed out, apparently by means of fire; and as the hollow side invariably faced the E. and S.E., the lee-side to the prevailing winds, it was concluded they were intended as habitations. In D'Entrecasteaux's Channel only were indications of huts made of the bark of the *Eucalyptus*, consisting of three rolls stitched together. Of the numerous tribes who peopled this island when it was first colonised by the British, only fifteen men and women remain in 1861. At the early settlement it was a penal colony, and the natives were considerably thinned by a war of extermination carried on by the convicts and settlers against them, which ended in their being conveyed to Flinders' Island in Bass's Strait, from whence the miserable remnant now at Brown's River, near Hobart Town, were brought to end their days in peace.—D'Entrecasteaux, Labillardière, Flinders, &c.

### III.—NEW GUINEA, OR PAPUA.

New Guinea, or Papua, is, after Australia, not only the first in point of magnitude, but claims a priority in discovery over that and every other island in the Australasian Sea. In the year 1526, when the Portuguese and the

Spaniards were disputing their respective claims to the Spice Islands, Don Torge de Meneses, of the former nation, had, in his passage from Malacca to the Moluccas, by extraordinary and accidental circumstances, discovered the north coast of Papua, so called, according to some, because the word signifies *black*, which was the colour of the natives, or *curled hair*, according to others. Meneses remained at a port called Versija till the change of the monsoon, and then returned to the Moluccas. The next navigator who touched at Papua was Alvarez de Saavedra, on his homeward voyage from the Moluccas in 1528, for New Spain ; and, from an idea that the country abounded in gold, he gave it the name of *Isla del Ora*. He stayed a month, and obtained provisions ; but some Portuguese deserted with the only boat the ship had, and were left behind. They found their way, however, to Gilolo, and reported that Saavedra had been wrecked ; but on his subsequent arrival they were tried, condemned, and executed. He is supposed to have added about 50 leagues of discovery to that of Meneses. In 1529 Saavedra sailed a second time from New Spain, and, according to Galvaom (or Galvano), followed the coast of Papua eastwards above 500 leagues.

In 1537, Gonzalvo and Alvarado were despatched on discovery by the viceroy of Peru ; but the former being killed in a mutiny, the crew chose another commander, and the first land they made was Papua. The ship was in so crazy a state that she was abandoned ; the crew, only seven in number (the rest having died of hunger and fatigue), were made captives, and carried to an island called *Crespos* (curly-haired men), whence they were sent to the Moluccas and ransomed.

In 1545, Ynigo Ortiz de Retz, in his voyage from Tidore to New Spain, came to an archipelago of islands near the land of Papua; sailed 230 leagues along the north coast; and not knowing it had been before visited by Europeans, he called it *Nueva Guinea*, from the resemblance of the natives to those of the coast of Guinea.

In 1606, Torres made the east coast of New Guinea in his way to the Moluccas, sailed westward 300 leagues, doubled the S.E. point, sailed along the southern coast, saw the northern coast of New Holland, and passed the strait which now bears his name. He describes the coast of New Guinea as inhabited by a dark people, naked except a covering round the middle, of painted cloth made of the bark of a tree. They had arms of clubs and darts ornamented with feathers. He fell in with many large islands, ports, and rivers. Towards the northern extremity he met with Mohammedans, who had swords and fire-arms.

In 1616, Schouten came in sight of a burning mountain on the coast of New Guinea, which he named Vulcan, and immediately after of the coast itself. The island was well inhabited, and abounded with cocoa-nuts; but no anchoring ground could be found. The natives were black, with short hair; but others appeared of a more tawny colour, with canoes of a different shape. Among the islands in sight to the northward, four small ones continually smoked. On approaching the mainland, the natives, whom he calls real Papoos, came off, "a wild, strange, and ridiculous people, active as monkeys, having black curled hair, rings in their ears and noses, and necklaces of hogs' tusks." They had all some personal defect; one was blind, another had a great leg, a third a swelled arm; from which Schouten

concluded that this part of the country was unhealthy, an inference which was confirmed by observing their houses built upon stakes 8 or 9 feet from the ground. At the two little islands of Moa and Insou, on the N.E. coast, the friendly natives supplied them with abundance of coconuts. At 28 leagues from Moa, Schouten fell in with a group of fourteen small islands covered with wood, and apparently uninhabited; but sailing to the northward, they were followed by six large canoes, the people in which were armed with javelins. Those in some canoes from another island were of a tawny complexion, had long curly hair, and appeared by their persons and language to be a different race from the natives of Papua: they had rings of coloured glass, yellow beads, and vessels of porcelain, which were regarded as "evidences of their having communication with the East Indies." Schouten's Island is the largest of this group. Tasman visited all these islands and the coast of New Guinea in 1643, but made no discoveries in this part of his voyage.

Our countryman Dampier saw the coast in 1699, but did not land: the natives came off to his ship, and he speaks in admiration of their large and picturesque *proas*. He discovered, however, a strait unknown before, which divides New Guinea from New Britain, and is now called after his name. Bougainville was less fortunate, when, in 1768, he touched on the coast of what he considered a separate island, and to which he gave the name of Louisiade. D'Entrecasteaux, in 1792, passed along the northern coast of Louisiade, and through Dampier's Strait; but left the point of its identity with, or separation from, New Guinea undecided.

Sonnerat published *A Voyage to New Guinea*, though

he evidently never was there, but describes the natives and productions from what he saw and from what he could collect at the island of Gibby, to the eastward of Gilolo.

Forrest, in 1775, anchored in the Bay of Dory, on the northern extremity of New Guinea, and collected some information respecting the inhabitants from a Mohammedan Hadji who accompanied him. Captain Cook also, in his first voyage in 1770, made the coast in about 6. 30. S. Lat., a little to the northward of Cape Valschar, but did not bring his ship to anchor, on account of the hostility of the natives. A party landed near a grove of cocoa-nut trees, and not far from it found plantain and the bread-fruit tree. The breeze from the trees and shrubs is said to have been charged with a fragrance not unlike that of gum *benjamin*.

The S.E. coast of New Guinea was visited in June 1793 by Mr Bampton, master of the *Hormuzeer*, and Mr Alt, master of the *Chesterfield*, two British merchant vessels, who, in their endeavours to find a passage to the N.W. while beating up the Great Bight of this island, added some valuable information to what was previously known of that part of the coast. Captain Bristow, also the discoverer of the Auckland Islands, visited in 1806 the northern shores of the smaller islands, which were described by D'Entrecasteaux in 1793. But the southern shores of the *Louisiade* remained unexplored from the period of Bougainville's voyage in 1768 until the year 1840, when a French navigator, Captain D'Urville, attempted a flying survey of them in the *Astrolabe* during his voyage round the world. He was not sure, however, whether the land he observed belonged to New Guinea or the *Louisiade*, although he passed a multitude of islands with navigable channels between them.



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In 1845 Captain Blackwood, in H.M.S. Fly, surveyed 140 miles of the S.E. coast of New Guinea within the Great Bight. Here he found a low muddy shore extending many miles inland of the same character, intersected by channels, which evidently are the estuaries of streams. One of these he ascended for a distance of 20 miles in the ship's boats, and saw numerous native villages built at intervals along the banks ; but being confronted by the inhabitants, who appeared to be of warlike disposition, he considered it dangerous to attempt a landing. This partial survey was followed up in 1846 by Lieutenant Yule in H.M. schooner Bramble, who laid down the coast-line from where Blackwood's survey had terminated E. of Aird's River, along the S.E. shore of the Bight. As he proceeded southerly, where the coast trends to the eastward, he found the country inland gradually improve in aspect from low mud banks to densely wooded hills ; with a lofty range of mountains in the distance. At this point, where he sighted a high peak of this mountain-chain—which now bears his name—he returned to Australia to await further orders.

On the 10th of June 1848, Captain Owen Stanley in H.M.S. Rattlesnake, accompanied by the Bramble, Lieutenant Yule, as tender, commenced a further survey of the doubtful S.E. peninsula of New Guinea, and Bougainville's Louisiade. During their combined indefatigable exertions for four months, they not only determined the fact that the latter island is separated from the mainland, but that it forms one of several groups of smaller islands, more or less surrounded by dangerous coral reefs, which extend for upwards of 200 miles E. by S. of the great Papuan Island, between 151. and 154. 30. E. Long., and the parallels of 11. and 12. S. Lat. : the entire assemblage of islands and

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reefs, including the Calvados Group, being now denominated the Louisiade Archipelago.

Much valuable information has been added to the natural history and ethnography of those coral-bound isles which Captain Stanley has now determined upon the charts of Australasia, by Mr John Macgillivray, the naturalist who accompanied the expedition; and who has furnished us with the journal of the voyage, which the death of the captain prevented himself from publishing. In his graphic descriptions of these new and interesting islands, he thus describes their appearance: "From the anchorage we enjoyed an extensive view of the south-eastern portion of the Louisiade Archipelago. On the extreme right is the large S.E. island, with its sharp undulating outline, and Mount Rattlesnake clearly visible, although distant 45 miles. Next, after a gap partially filled up by Pig Island, Joannet Island succeeds,  $10\frac{1}{2}$  miles in length, not so high as South-east Island, but resembling it in dimness of outline: its highest point, Mount Asp, is 1104 feet in height. Next come the Calvados, of various aspect and size, some with the undulating outline of the larger islands, others rising more or less abruptly to the height of from four to upwards of nine hundred feet. They constitute a numerous group—upwards of 40—some of which, however, are mere rocks: they are delineated upon the Rattlesnake's chart, and there are others to the northward. Behind them, in two of the intervals, the large and distant island of St Aignan (so named after one of D'Entrecasteux's lieutenants) fills up the background, falling low at its eastern extreme, but the western half is high and mountainous, with an elevation of 3279 feet. Further to the westward, the last of the Calvados in this view was seen to form

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a remarkable peak, 518 feet in height, to which the name of Eddystone was applied; and still further to the left, Ile Real of D'Urville's chart shoots up to the height of 554 feet, as a solitary rocky island with a rugged outline and an abruptly peaked summit."\*

Leaving these islands, Captain Stanley proceeded on his general survey along the S.E. coast of New Guinea, until he reached that point of land where Lieutenant Yule in the Bramble had left off. On making the S.E. cape of the island, the land appeared of a mountainous character inland; and this continued increasing in elevation for 250 miles, until he came to Yule's Peak. It is evident that this great mountain-chain divided the watershed on each side of the peninsula. On determining the altitude of this range of mountains, it was found to average double that of the Australian Alps—the highest section of the great Cordillera of that island. Mount Owen Stanley is 13,205 feet in height, being more than double that of Mount Kosciuszko (6510 feet)—the highest mountain in Australia. Of fifteen other peaks in the range, whose altitudes are laid down on the Rattlesnake's chart, eight are above 7000 feet. Doubtless there are rich fields for discovery to future naturalists on these tropical-alpine ranges. At present, however, the hostile disposition of its savage occupants renders it inaccessible to European explorers.

If we except the Louisiade Archipelago, New Guinea extends in a S.E. by E. direction from the Cape of Good Hope, nearly under the equator, to South-east Cape, in 10. 35. S., being in length about 1200, and medial breadth about 150 geographical miles. The accounts of all the navigators who have touched on the different parts

\* *Voyage of H.M.S. Rattlesnake, Captain Owen Stanley.* By J. Macgillivray. Vol. i. p. 241.

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of its coast, describe it as a rich and magnificent country, containing, in all human probability, from its situation and appearance, the most valuable vegetable products of the Moluccas and the several Asiatic islands. Forrest found the nutmeg tree on Manaswary Island, in the Bay of Dory; and he learned that a people in the interior, called *Haraforas*, cultivate the ground, and bring the produce down to the sea-coast; that they are very poor, and some of them have long hair; and that they live in trees, which they ascend by cutting notches in them. The people of New Guinea, in many parts of the coast, live in huts or cabins placed on stages which are erected on posts, commonly in the water, and probably as a protection against snakes and other venomous creatures, though Forrest seems to think against the *Haraforas*. On these stages they haul up their proas or canoes. These people are invariably described as being hideously ugly. Their large eyes, flat noses, thick lips, woolly hair, and black shining skin, impressed the early navigators with the idea that they were of African origin; but closer investigation, of late years, has shown them to be a very mixed race indeed. Mr Macgillivray resolves them into several indistinct types with intermediate gradations. Thus, occasionally he met with strongly marked negro characteristics, but still more frequently with the Jewish cast of features; while every now and then a face presented itself which struck him as Malayan. Although the hair of these aborigines was invariably frizzled out into a mop, and woolly, instances were met with in both sexes where it was black, soft, and curly, while in others it was red and frizzly, and the males mostly beardless. The colour of the skin varies from a light to a dark copper shade; and their stature does not average more than 5 feet 4 inches. Instead, therefore, of considering them a pure race, these late investigations would lead us to suppose that the races from all the neighbouring Polynesian and Malayan islands had their representatives on this beautiful and fertile group of islands, who have amalgamated and formed the most warlike race in the Australasian seas. Their habits, however, are much the same as their neighbours'; and they show equal skill in the management of their canoes and weapons, and in the building of huts. The Papuans also increase their natural deformity by passing bones or pieces of stick through the cartilage of the nose, and, as already mentioned, frizzing out their curly locks like a mop, sometimes to the enormous circumference of 3 feet. They

appear, however, to be one degree farther removed from savage life than the Australian aborigines, having permanent houses, and both men and women wearing wrappers round the waist, which are among the articles brought to them by the Chinese and Malays.

The only quadrupeds known to exist on this island are dogs, rats, and wild hogs; but the feathered race are of great beauty and infinite variety. New Guinea is the native country of the bird of paradise. They are said to migrate in large flocks, in the dry monsoon, to the islands of Arroo, and other islands to the W. and N.W. of New Guinea. The great crown pigeon, parrots, lories, and minas, are natives of Papua.

The whole of this great country is indented with deep bays on every side, some of which nearly intersect the island; and the coast is surrounded on every side by a multitude of small islands, all peopled with the same description of blacks, excepting those already mentioned on the N.W., near the equator, most of which are under the government of Mohammedan Malays, with whom both the Dutch and Chinese have long kept up intercourse.

#### IV. NEW BRITAIN, NEW IRELAND, AND NEIGHBOURING ISLANDS.

There can be little doubt that this extensive range of islands was partially seen by Le Maire and Schouten in 1616, who, after discovering the Groene Island and the Marquen Islands, steered along the northern coast of New Ireland, as did Tasman also in 1642. Dampier, however, first ascertained New Britain to be an island distinct from New Guinea, by passing the strait which has since borne his name. He visited Port Montague on this island, and speaks of the black natives resembling the Papuans, their dexterity in managing their canoes, their woody hills, fertile vales, and delightful rivulets. He also anchored in Slinger's Bay, on New Ireland, which he conceived to be the same land with New Britain; but Carteret, in 1727,

discovered and passed through a strait which separates them, and to which he gave the name of St George's Channel. The Admiralty Islands of Carteret, to the north-westward of New Britain, had previously been discovered by Schouten, and named the Twenty-five Islands. New Britain was seen by Roggewein in 1722, and by Bougainville in 1768.

D'Entrecasteaux, we believe, was the last navigator who passed along the north coast of New Britain, and through St George's Channel, which divides it from New Ireland, and from thence to the Admiralty Islands; and from his voyage, published by Rossel, together with Labillardière's and Carteret's, we shall extract a few gleanings.

The extent of New Britain and Ireland is not exactly known, nor have they been sufficiently explored to enable geographers to lay them down with accuracy, or even to state what number of islands the group consists of. One of considerable extent lies off the N.E. end of New Ireland, which has been named New Hanover, and is itself surrounded by low woody islands. The whole group occupies a space between 2. 30. and 6. of S. Lat., and 149. and 153. of E. Long., and may probably contain an area not less than 10,000 geographical square miles.

Carteret, in passing through the strait, saw but few natives on the south coast of New Ireland. These showed marked signs of hostility, and were armed with lances headed with flint; they had also slings and good fishing-tackle. They were black, and had woolly hair, but their lips, he says, were not thick, nor their noses flat; their cheeks were streaked with white, and their hair and beards were covered with a white powder. Their canoes were long and narrow, and had generally outriggers; one of them measured 90 feet in length, and was formed out of a single tree. The two large islands and the whole group, in fact, were nearly covered with wood, and thick cocoa-nut groves skirted all the low parts of

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the coast. Labillardière says that New Ireland produces nutmegs, and he also mentions a new species of the Areca palm, 108 feet high, the stem consisting of hard solid timber.

The natives of the Admiralty Islands, lying to the N.W., were found by Carteret to be less black than those of New Britain and Ireland, with agreeable countenances, not unlike Europeans; their hair was curly, smeared with oil and red ochre, and their bodies and faces painted with the same material; the glans penis was covered with the shell called the *bulla ovum*, serving the same purpose as the wooden sheath of the Caffres in South Africa, whom, indeed, they seem to resemble as closely as the natives of New Guinea do those of the western coast of Africa. The women wear a bandage round the waist. The central island is tolerably large, and of a beautiful appearance, clothed with the most luxuriant verdure, and cultivated to the very summit. Among the groves of cocoa-nut trees are numerous habitations, and the natives have evidently attained to a higher degree of civilisation than their southern neighbours: they use earthen vessels, and chew the betel leaf with chunam or lime. This central island is surrounded by nearly thirty small flat islets of coral, and reefs in the various stages of progress towards islets.

Proceeding to the westward and to the north-west, we meet with other little clusters of islands,—as the Hermites, the Portland, the Echiquier (chess-board), vulgarly called Exchequer Islands, all of which consist, like the Admiralty Archipelago, of a larger central island surrounded by a chain of isles and reefs, most of them covered with beautiful verdure. The natives of these groups, as they approach the equator, gradually assume a lighter colour and longer hair, till they lose entirely the negro character, and merge into that of Malays and other Asiatic islanders.—See Schouten, Dampier, Carteret, Labillardière, &c.

### V. SOLOMON'S ISLAND.

This archipelago of islands was one of the first discoveries of the Spaniards in Australasia, though the credit of it is given to Alonzo de Mendana, who was sent on an expedition of discovery in 1567 from Callao by the viceroy

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of Peru. He anchored in a port on the island of Santa Ysabel, to which he gave the name of *Porta de la Estrella*; and he also built a brigantine to make further discoveries, in which she was particularly successful, having fallen in with no fewer than thirty-three islands, "of very fine prospect." Many of them were of considerable size, to which they gave particular names, as *Galera*, *Buonavista*, *Florida*, *San German*, *Guadalcanar*, *San Christoval*, *Santa Catarina*, and *Santa Ana*. *Guadalcanar*, however, was the most attractive, having a port which they named *De la Cruz*, and a river which they called *Galego*. Of this island Mendana took possession for the king of Spain. When the voyage was published, the name of Solomon's Islands was given to the group, "to the end that the Spaniards, supposing them to be those isles from whence Solomon fetched gold to adorn the temple at Jerusalem, might be the more desirous to go and inhabit the same; but it has been said that Mendana's advice was that they should not be colonised, "that the English, or others, who pass the Strait of Magellhanes to go to the Moluccas, might have no succour there, but such as they get from the Indians." The truth, however, is, that Mendana, on a second voyage for the discovery of the Solomon Islands, returned without being able to find them, which gave occasion to the remark, that "what Mendana discovered in his first voyage he lost in his second." He discovered, however, in this second voyage, the great island of *Santa Cruz*, which is situated at the S.E. extremity of Solomon's Islands, and may very fairly be considered as one of the group. This island, which has an excellent harbour, *La Graciosa*, was first revisited after Mendana's discovery by Carteret, in 1767, who changed its name to that of Eg-



mont, and made it the principal island of a group which he called Queen Charlotte's Islands. Here Mendana died, and Quiros succeeded to the command; but the search for Solomon's Islands was abandoned when they were not more than 40 leagues from Christoval. It is a singular fact that Solomon's Islands, whose name was sufficient to tempt adventurers, were lost to Europeans for two centuries after their discovery, and that we know at present little, if any, more than Mendana gave to the world after his first voyage. They were revisited by Bougainville in 1768; by M. Surville in 1769, who, from a ridiculous mistake, called them the Archipelago of the Arsacides, to mark the natives as assassins; by Lieutenant Shortland of the British navy, in 1788, who chose to call them New Georgia; and frequently, since that time, by various British and French navigators.

Santa Ysabel, says Mendana, was inhabited by people who had the complexion of mulattoes, with curly hair, and little covering to their bodies; who worshipped serpents, toads, and such like creatures; whose food was cocoa-nuts and roots; and who, it was believed, ate human flesh, "for the chief sent to the general a present of a quarter of a boy, with the hand and arm." Bonavista is 12 leagues in extent, very fertile, and well peopled, the natives living in regular villages or towns. On Florida, 25 leagues in circuit, the natives dyed their hair red, collected together at the sound of the conch-shells, and ate human flesh. Sesargo was well inhabited, produced plenty of yams and bread-fruit, and here the Spaniards saw hogs. In the midst of the island was a volcano continually emitting smoke. They saw bats which measured 5 feet between the tips of the wings. At Guadalcanar they received in barter two hens and a cock, the first fowls that had been seen. At San Christoval, the natives were very numerous, and drew up to give battle to the Spaniards, their arms being darts, clubs, bows and arrows; but they were dispersed by the fire of the muskets, which killed one Indian and wounded others. In the neighbouring village was found a quantity of cocoa-nuts and almonds, sufficient to

have loaded a ship. Santa Ana was well peopled and fertile. It has a good port on the east side, where the Spaniards were attacked by the natives, who wounded three of the invaders, while a dart pierced through the target and arm of the Spanish commanding officer. The blacks had boughs on their heads, and bands round their waists. The Spaniards observed here hogs and fowls.

## VI. NEW HEBRIDES.

To the S.E. of Solomon's Islands, and between the parallels of 14. 30. and 20. S. Lat., are found a number of islands, some of very considerable magnitude, called the New Hebrides or Hebudes. They were first discovered in 1606 by Pedro Fernandes de Quiros, who, with Luis Vaez de Torres, was sent by the King of Spain from Lima with two ships and a zabra (launch) to establish a settlement at the island of Santa Cruz, and from thence to go in quest of the Tierra Austral, or southern continent. This voyage has been considered, and justly so, among the most celebrated undertaken by the Spaniards since the time of Magellanes. In April 1606 they discovered an island to which they gave the name of Santa Maria, from whence they saw another island to the southward, "so large," says Torres, "that we sailed for it." On the 2d of May they anchored in a bay large enough to hold a thousand ships, to which they gave the appropriate name of San Felipe y Santiago. Quiros at once determined that he had now discovered the long-sought-for southern continent, and in this conviction named it the Australia del Espiritu Santo. Two rivers fell into the bay, one the Jordan, the other the Salvador. The surrounding country was beautiful, and is thus described by the historian of the voyage: "The banks of the rivers were covered with odoriferous flowers and plants, particularly

orange flowers and sweet basil, the perfumes of which were wafted to the ships by the morning and evening breezes ; and at the early dawn was heard, from the neighbouring woods, the mixed melody of many different kinds of birds, some in appearance like nightingales, blackbirds, larks, and goldfinches. All the parts of the country in front of the sea were beautifully varied with fertile valleys, plains, winding rivers and groves, which extend to the sides of the Green Mountains."—Torquemeda, as quoted in Burney's *Account of Discoveries in the South Sea*.

This archipelago of islands, like that of Solomon, was lost to the world for a century and a half, when Bougainville revisited them in 1768. Except landing on the Isle of Lepers, however, he did nothing more than discover that the land was not connected, but composed of islands, which he called the *Great Cyclades* ; which, on being more accurately and extensively explored by Cook in 1774, underwent another change to that of New Hebrides, which they now bear in all our charts. According to the survey of our great navigator, they consist of Tierra del Espiritu Santo, the largest of the whole, St Bartholomew, Mallicolo, the Isle of Lepers, Aurora, Whitsuntide, Ambrym, Apee, Paoom, Three-hills, Sandwich, Montagu, Hinchinbrook, Shepherd's Isles, Erromango, Tanna Immer, Annatom, and Erronan. The two which are more particularly described are Mallicolo and Tanna, the natives of which differ remarkably in their persons and language ; those of the latter having curly but long hair, dark, but not black, and without anything of the negro character in their features, which are regular and agreeable ; their persons slender, active, and nimble. They were found to be hospitable, civil, and good-natured ; but they displayed a jealousy of their visitors seeing the interior of the island which could only be equalled in Japan or China. All the plantations were fenced, and laid out in a line ; they consisted of sugar-canes, yams, plantains bread-fruit, &c. The yams were remarkably fine, one of them weighing 56 pounds, every ounce of which was good ; and they had pigs and poultry. The juice of the cocoa-nut and water appeared to be their only beverage. Their arms were clubs, darts, lances, and bows and arrows. Their canoes, clumsily sewed together, had

outriggers, and were worked by paddles and by sails. The men wore a wrapper round the loins, and the women a sort of petticoat reaching to the knee.

The natives of Mallicolo are called by Captain Cook, "an ape-like nation," the most ugly, ill-proportioned people he ever met with, and different from all others, diminutive in their persons, dark coloured, with black hair, short and curly, but not so woolly as a negro's; they had long heads, flat faces, and monkey countenances; and a belt round the waist, pulled tight across the belly, made them look not unlike overgrown pismires. The women were equally ugly; and the dress of both sexes was in other respects the same as that of Tauna, as were also the productions of the island. Their houses were low, and covered with palm-thatch.—See Dalrymple, Burney, Cook, &c.

The differences in depth of hue and otherwise among these nations, striking as they often are, are not now considered to indicate diversity of race and origin, but as rather the result of diversity of the physical features of their respective countries or islands, the more mountainous giving a fairer race, and the more level, where the sun's power is greatest, a darker hue. These interesting islands, which give promise of being shortly both civilised and Christianised, have been already alluded to in regard to their later history.

#### VII. NEW CALEDONIA.

This large island, surrounded with coral islets and reefs, was wholly unknown till Captain Cook in 1774 fell in with the north-western extremity in steering south-west from Mallicolo, from which it is distant not more than about eighty leagues. He anchored within a small island called Balabea, and opposite to the district Balade. This great island extends between latitude 20. 5. and 22. 30., in the direction of N.W. and S.E., about 250 long by 60 broad. The land bears a great resemblance to that of New South Wales, and many of its natural productions appeared to be the same, but the natives were different. Both this

island and the Loyalty group to the N.E. have been taken possession of by the French since 1853-54.

The inhabitants are represented as a strong, robust, active, well-made people, courteous and friendly, and not in the least addicted to pilfering, in which respect they differ from every other tribe of Australasia. They are nearly of the same colour as the natives of Tanna, and appeared to be a mixed race between that people and those of the Friendly Isles, or of Tanna and New Zealand, their language being a mixture of them all. Of the same disposition as the natives of the Friendly Islands, they were found to excel them in affability and honesty; and the women, like those of Tanna, were chaster than the females of the more eastern islands. They wear a petticoat of the filaments of the plantain tree, "at least six or eight inches thick, but not one inch longer than is necessary for the use designed." They paint and puncture their bodies, and wear ear-rings, and necklaces, and bracelets, of tortoise and other shells. Both men and women have good features and agreeable countenances; and some of the men measure in height six feet four inches. Their hair is frizzled out like a mop, and is very black, coarse, and strong, but different from that of a negro. The rough mop-heads make use of "scratchers," composed of a number of sticks of hard wood, about the thickness of knitting-needles, fastened together at one end like a sort of comb; the women have their hair cropped short. The men wear a wrapper round the loins, made of the bark of a tree. Their houses resemble beehives, with peaked roofs, entered by a hole just big enough to admit a man bent double. The sides are of spars and reeds, and both these and the roof well thatched with dry grass. They boil their roots and fish in earthen jars. They have nets made of plantain fibres, and the sails of their canoes are of the same material. These vessels consist of two trees fixed together by a platform. They have plantations of sugar-canes, plantains, bread-fruit, and cocoa-nut, but none of them very productive. The whole appearance of the country, indeed, is described as unable to support many inhabitants. The greater part of the visible surface consists of barren rocky mountains; and though the plains and valleys appeared to be fertile, Captain Cook was of opinion that "nature has been less bountiful to it than to any other tropical island we know in this sea."

D'Entrecasteaux passed the opposite extremity of New Caledonia

in 1792, when on his search after the unfortunate La Pérouse, but was prevented by a barrier reef of coral from approaching the coast; and in the following year he visited Balade on the N.W. The account of the inhabitants, as given by Rossel and Labillardière, differs altogether from that of Cook. But their own account of their transactions there, the confidence with which they straggled over the country, and the readiness of the savages to serve them, by no means warrant the bad character they have thought fit to give them. Labillardière thinks the inhabitants, as well as the vegetable productions, resemble those of Van Diemen's Land. There was no want of different kinds of esculent plants, though a great scarcity prevailed from drought or other cause when they arrived. The young shoots of the *Hibiscus tiliaceus*, the fruit of the *Cordia sebestina*, the *Dolichos tuberosus*, *Helianthus tuberosus*, *Arum esculentum*, and *Macrorrhizon*, *Hypoxis*, *Alueries*, figs, oranges, plantains, sugar-canes, cocoa-nuts, and the bread-fruit, all afforded them articles of food. Yet Labillardière says they eat steatite, and that he saw one man devour a piece of this stone as large as his two fists. They also eat a species of spider. They had lost the hogs which Cook left them, but some half-dozen of cocks and hens were seen by the French.—See Cook, Labillardière, &c.

#### VIII. NEW ZEALAND AND AUCKLAND ISLANDS.

Though these islands geographically belong to Australasia, the natives are, in their physical character and language, Polynesians. They were first discovered on the 13th December 1642, by Abel Jansen Tasman, on his voyage of discovery from the Mauritius; and on the 18th the Heemskirk yacht and the fly-boat Zeehaan came to anchor in a bay to which they afterwards gave the name of Moordenaar's or Murderer's Bay, and to the island that of Staaten Land, in honour of the States-General, and in the possibility that it might join the Staaten Land to the east of the Tierra del Fuego. "It is a fine country," says Tasman, and "we hope it is part of the unknown S. conti-

ment." The expedition of Hendrik Bower to Chili the following year cut off the latter Staaten Land from any continental connection, and the name of the former was then changed to that of New Zealand.

The next visitor, at the distant period of a hundred and twenty-seven years, was Captain Surville, who in 1769 put into a bay on the north-eastern extremity, and gave it the name of Lauriston Bay. In the same year Lieutenant afterwards (Captain) Cook of the Endeavour made the land on the 6th of October, the enormous height of which became the subject of much conversation; and the general opinion was that they had now discovered the *Terra Australis Incognita*. This voyage, however, and the circumnavigation of the islands of New Zealand, entirely subverted the theory of a great southern continent. In 1772 Captains Marion du Fresne and Crozet put into the Bay of Isles, where the former and some of the crew were murdered by the natives. In March 1773 Captain Cook in the Resolution, with Captain Furneaux in the Adventure, revisited New Zealand, where the latter had a whole boat's crew, with a midshipman, murdered by the inhabitants. In 1776 and 1777 a third visit was made to these islands by Captain Cook. In these several visits he was accompanied by men well versed in every branch of natural knowledge; and in the *Voyages of Cook and Forster* will be found every species of information that the ferocious disposition of the inhabitants made it practicable to collect.

The two great islands of New Zealand extend between latitude  $34^{\circ}$  and  $48^{\circ}$  south, longitude  $166^{\circ}$  and  $179^{\circ}$  east; that to the northward, called Eaheinoawe, is about 400 geographical miles long by 90 in medial breadth. The name

of the southern island is Tavai Poenammoo, which is about 450 geographical miles long by 95 broad. The former has a rich and fertile soil, well clothed with trees, some of them more than 20 feet in girth, and 90 feet high, without a branch. Some of them resembled spruce, and were "large enough for the mainmast of a 50-gun ship." The highest hills were covered with forests, the valleys with grass and shrubbery, and the plains were well irrigated with rills of clear water. The southern island is very mountainous; one peak, that of Mount Cook, being 13,200 feet in height: it was covered with snow in the middle of January. Both as to appearance and temperature, they may be considered as the British Isles of Australasia. Fahrenheit's thermometer in February was never higher than 66°, and was not lower in June than 48°.

The natives are stout and well-limbed, muscular, vigorous, and active, excelling in manual dexterity; their countenances intelligent and expressive, of an olive complexion, but not darker than a Spaniard. In the appearance of the women there is not much feminine delicacy; but on Cook's first visit they found them more modest and decent in their behaviour than any of the islanders they had met with. They were covered from the shoulders to the ankles with a sort of netted cloth made of the split leaves of the flax plant (*Phormium tenax*), the ends hanging down like fringes.

The black hair of the men is bound in a knot on the top of the head, that of the women is cropped; both sexes anoint their hair with rancid oil, and smear their bodies with grease and red ochre. The faces of the old men are covered with large furrowed black marks, generally spiral lines, and have a horrible appearance. The women wear in their ears pieces of cloth, feathers, sticks, bones, &c., and bracelets and anklets of bone, teeth, shells, &c. Captain Cook did not observe any appearance of disease, or bodily complaint, or eruption on the skin, or marks of any; and the most severe wounds healed most rapidly. Very old men, without hair or teeth, showed no signs of decrepitude, and were full of cheerful-



ness and vivacity. They are mild, gentle, and affectionate towards each other, but ferocious and implacable towards their enemies; and it unfortunately happens, that the little societies into which they appear to be divided are in an almost perpetual state of hostility, which makes it necessary for them to dwell in happaas or villages, fortified with embankments, ditches, and palisadoes. They give no quarter, and feast with apparent relish on the bodies of their enemies, which they cut up and broil in holes dug in the earth; they suck out the brains, and preserve the skulls as trophies. They made no hesitation in devouring human flesh in presence of the English officers, and their provision baskets had generally a head or a limb of a human subject.

The only quadrupeds on the islands are pigs, dogs, and rats, the former of which they eat; but their principal food consists of fish, potatoes, and the bruised roots of fern. They cultivate, however, and with great neatness, sweet potatoes, eddas, and gourds, all planted in regular rows; and Cook observed near the villages both privies and dunghills. Their houses have a ridge-pole to the roof, which, with the sides, are built of sticks and grass, and lined with bark; they sleep on the floors covered with straw; and the furniture consists of a chest to hold their tools, clothes, arms, and feathers, provision-baskets, and gourds to hold water, which is their only beverage; the New Zealanders being among the very few people, civilized or savage, who are ignorant of the means of intoxication.

Their double canoes or whale-boats are admirably constructed with planks from 60 to 70 feet in length, and their prows and sterns are tastefully and curiously carved and ornamented; all of which is performed by adzes and axes of a hard black stone, or green talc or jade, and with chisels of human bone or jasper. Of these materials also their offensive weapons are made: these are lances fourteen feet long, sharp at both ends, of hard wood neatly carved; and a battle-axe of jade or bone about a foot long. Their war canoes carry from 60 to 70 men each; they keep exact time with their paddles, singing, with great vociferation and distorted features, their savage war-song, when bound on any hostile expedition. Their war-dances are conducted in the same furious and extravagant style: the only musical instrument, if it can be called one, which they use, is a triton shell, which sounds like a cow's horn.

They have, however, a taste for music, and the women are said

to sing in a soft, slow, and mournful cadence, making use of semi tones. When their husbands are slain in battle, they cut their legs, arms, and faces, with bone or sharp shells; and there are few of them who do not wear scars on their bodies as testimonials of their affection and sorrow for their deceased friends.

The natives of New Zealand exhibit a strange mixture of civilized and savage life. It was hoped, from the state of their cultivated grounds, of which several hundred acres were seen, that presents of hogs, kids, and poultry would have been most acceptable, and considerable numbers were left with them on the first and second visits of Captain Cook; but, excepting the cocks and hens, which had bred plentifully, and flew about wild in the woods, the others had been wantonly destroyed. In 1791 Vancouver touched at Dusky Bay, and remained there for some time, examining the bays and creeks in the neighbourhood; but he did not see one human being; and in 1793 D'Entrecasteaux passed between the Three Kings' Island and Cape Maria Van Diemen, but had no other communication with the natives except in their canoes. Unlike in some respects to the Tahitians, they have evidently a common origin; their language not differing more than the language of the two New Zealand Islands from each other. The few notions they have of superior beings also accord with those of Tahiti. (See Cook's *Voyages*.)

The following horrible transaction proves how well Captain Cook described the character of these cannibals. In December 1809, the ship *Boyd*, from Port Jackson, was at Wangaroa, in the Bay of Islands, and admitted, without due caution, too large a number of natives on board, when the crew were suddenly attacked, overpowered, and slaughtered. Captain Alexander Berry, of the ship *Edinburgh Castle*, being on the coast, was soon after apprised of this horrible event; and, proceeding to the bay, found the remains of the *Boyd*, which had been burnt by the savages. On landing, he discovered that the massacre had been directed by Tippahee, the old chief who had been so much caressed at Sydney. The bones of the unfortunate men lay scattered on the ground, where their bodies had been devoured by the savages. Sixteen were murdered and cut up on the deck of the vessel; five others, who had fled for safety upon the yards, were told by the old cannibal, that if they would come down their lives should be spared, which, after some hesitation, they consented to do. They were sent on shore, and in

## SUBDIVISIONS OF AUSTRALASIA.

five minutes after their dead bodies lay on the beach. The only survivors which Captain Berry contrived to save, were a woman, two children, and a boy. Well might Captain Berry conclude the narrative of this horrid murder by an admonition, "Let no man trust a New Zealander."

During upwards of half a century that has elapsed since this shocking occurrence, the character of the New Zealander has been more accurately known. The undeniable ferocity of the savage and the cannibal has not been altogether eradicated, but it has been greatly tempered by his increasing association with Christianity and a civilized government. Cannibalism has ceased, and many of these natives have embraced the Christian faith. But the sanguinary war into which they plunged in the year 1860 with the colonial government, on a question of rights and customs as to the disposal of land, shows the old character still ready to display itself. And, truly, during a year's contest against the rifles, the rifled cannon, and the discipline of their powerful opponents, they fought with a pertinacity and daring that are fortunately very rare in the encounter of civilized with savage life. We have already in this article alluded to this war, and the progress of this fine and promising British colony.

To the eastward of New Zealand is an island of considerable extent and well peopled, discovered by Mr Broughton in 1791, when on a voyage round the world with Vancouver. He called it Chatham Island. The people and the productions are the same as those of New Zealand. (See Vancouver's *Voyage*.)

The Auckland Islands, or Lord Auckland's Group, are in Lat. 50. 40. S. and Long. 166. 35. E., nearly 180 miles S. of New Zealand. They were so named by the discoverer, Captain Abram Bristow, master of a South Sea whaler belonging to Mr Samuel Enderby, in gratitude to the nobleman whose name they bear, for having procured him admission, when a boy, into Greenwich Hospital. This group was first seen on the 10th of August 1806; and on the 20th of October 1807, Captain Bristow came to anchor with his ship the *Sarah* in a fine harbour in the largest island, which he quaintly named *Sarah's Bosom*. This harbour, sometimes called *Laurie Harbour* and *Rendezvous Harbour*, has been renamed *Port Ross* by Mr Chas. Enderby in honour of Sir James Clark Ross, who surveyed the port. These islands have subsequently been visited and briefly described by Captain Morell of the American merchant

service in 1829; by Commodore Wilkes of the United States exploring expedition; and by Admiral D'Urville of the French, and Sir James Clark Ross of the English navy in 1840.

The group consists of one large and several smaller islands. The principal island, Auckland, is about 30 miles long and 15 broad, and contains about 100,000 acres of land. The smaller islands, of which the principal are Adam's and Enderby, contain together about 20,000 acres. They are all of volcanic formation, composed of basalt and greenstone, and present a wild and picturesque appearance. The highest hill (Mount Eden) rises about 1350 feet above the level of the sea. Crawley's Harbour, in the south of Auckland, is described by Captain Morell and others as even superior to Laurie's Harbour. This island is fertile and well watered. The hills, except a few of the highest, are thickly covered with lofty trees of most vigorous growth, while the plains and valleys are clothed with luxuriant vegetation. Dr Hooker, who, in his *Flora Antarctica*, has given an elaborate account of the botany of these islands, says, "The whole land seemed covered with vegetation. A low forest skirts all the shores, succeeded by a broad belt of brushwood, above which, to the summit of the hills, extend grassy slopes. On a closer inspection of the forest, it is found to be composed of a dense thicket of stag-headed trees, so gnarled and stunted by the violence of the gales, as to afford an excellent shelter for a luxuriant undergrowth of bright green feathery ferns, and several gay-flowered herbs. The climate is described by Captain Morell as "mild, temperate, and salubrious. I have been told," he adds, "by men of the first respectability and talent, who have visited the island in the month of July—the dead of winter on this island,—that the weather was mild as respects cold, as the mercury was never lower than 38° in the valleys, and the trees at the same time retained their verdure as if it was midsummer. At the time we were there the mercury seldom rose higher than 78°, although it answered to our July. The weather is generally good at all seasons of the year, notwithstanding there are occasional high winds, attended with heavy rain."

The domestic pig, introduced by Captain Bristow, is the only quadruped found in these islands. The woods abound with singing birds, and on the shores seals and sea-fowl are plentiful. "The only game observed," says Dr Holmes of the United States expedition, "were a few gray ducks, snipes, cormorants, and the common

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shag. The land birds are excellent eating, especially the hawks." Some officers of the French expedition, who visited the E. coast between the two harbours, found the banks full of fish, with a regular bottom varying from 15 to 20 fathoms.

The convenience of these islands as a station for the southern whale fishery was remarked by the various navigators who visited them, but has only recently been taken advantage of. Mr Charles Enderby, F.R.S., and his two brothers, sons of Captain Bristow's employer, having obtained a grant of these islands from the British Government, a company was incorporated in 1849 for the prosecution of this important object.

### IX. KERGUELEN'S LAND.

Between the parallels of 40. 30. and 50. S., and longitude 69° E., lies the barren and uninhabited land of Kerguelen, so named from the French officer who first discovered it in 1772, and who, on a second visit in 1773, discovered some small islands near it, but on neither occasion was able once to bring his ships to an anchor upon any part of the coast. Captain Cook was more fortunate. He had heard of Kerguelen's discovery at the Cape of Good Hope, and wondered he should not have seen this land when he passed it so closely in 1770. In 1776, however, he fell in with these islands, and as no account of Kerguelen's voyage had been made public, he gave new names to each island. Speaking of the main island, "I should," says Cook, "from its sterility, with great propriety call it the *Island of Desolation*, but that I would not rob M. de Kerguelen of the honour of its bearing his name." He changed, however, the *Baie de l'Oiseau* of the French, where they had landed in a boat and lodged a piece of parchment in a bottle, into *Christmas Harbour*; and called a round high rock Bligh's Cap, which had been named by

M. de Kerguelen the Isle of Rendezvous, although, says Cook, "I know nothing that can rendezvous about it but fowls of the air; for it is certainly inaccessible to any other animal." Kerguelen thought he had discovered the *Terra Australis Incognita*, but Cook soon determined that it was of no great extent.

The hills were but of a moderate height, and yet in the middle of summer were covered with snow; not a shrub was found on this island, and not more than 17 or 18 different plants, one-half of which were either mosses or grasses. The chief verdure was occasioned by one plant, not unlike a saxifrage, spreading in tufts, and forming a surface of a pretty extensive texture, over a kind of bog or rotten turf: the highest plant resembled a small cabbage when shot into seed, and was about two feet high. No land animals were met with, but great plenty of the ursine seal (*Phoca ursina*). Penguins were very abundant, as were also shags, cormorants, albatrosses, gulls, ducks, petrels, and sea-swallows. A few fish of the size of a haddock were taken with the line, and the only shell-fish were a few limpets and mussels.

The steep cliffs towards the sea are rent from the top downwards, but whether by rains, frost, or earthquakes, could not be determined. The productions of the hills were composed chiefly of a dark blue and pretty hard stone, intermixed with small particles of glimmer or quartz. Lumps of coloured sandstone and of semi-transparent quartz are also common. Nothing appeared like an ore or metal of any kind.—Cook's *Third Voyage*, vol. i.

## SUBDIVISIONS OF AUSTRALASIA.

These small uninhabited islands are interesting only in a geological point of view. They are now known to have been first discovered by Tasman in 1633, as has been already stated. Situated in the midst of the great Indian Ocean, at the distance of 2000 miles from the nearest land, they have no common point of resemblance to each other; the one being the product of a volcanic eruption scarcely yet cooled, with a few mosses and grasses on its surface; the other composed of horizontal and parallel strata of rock, covered with frutescent plants—an appearance which led the scientific gentlemen in D'Entrecasteaux's expedition to conclude that an organization so regular could not proceed from a volcanic origin.

Of the recent creation of Amsterdam there can be little doubt; indeed, it is scarcely yet cooled, and is altered considerably since it was observed by Vlaming in 1696. From every part of the sloping sides of the crater, which is nearly 1000 yards in diameter, and into which the sea has forced its way, either smoke, or hot water, or hot mud, is seen to issue; and everywhere is felt a tremulous motion, and a noise heard like that of boiling water. In many parts of the crater, in the centre of which the water is 174 feet deep, the sea-water is tepid from the hot springs below; and numbers of these springs are found on the margin, below the high-water mark, of various temperatures, from 100° to the boiling-point. One very copious spring, slightly chalybeate, flows in a copious stream into the crater, nearly on a level with the lowest state of the tide.

Another singularity which this island presents is in its

mosses and grasses, which are all European. To these may be added the *Sonchus oleracea*, or sow thistle; the *Apium petrosilenum*, or parsley; and the common *Lycopodium*, or club-moss, which grows luxuriantly on the bleak heaths of North Britain, and seems to thrive equally well on the boggy soil of Amsterdam, heated, at the depth of a foot below the surface, to the temperature of 186° of Fahrenheit's scale.

The crater abounds with an excellent perch of a reddish colour, which is easily caught with the hook, and may then be dropped at once into one of the hot springs on the margin, and boiled. So caught and dressed, we are told it affords an excellent repast. The bar across the mouth of the crater is represented as one mass of crayfish; and in the sea, outside the bar, the vast multitudes of whales, grampuses, porpoises, seals, and sea-lions, render it dangerous for boats to pass. It was the same in Vlaming's time, who "found the sea so full of seals and sea-lions that they were obliged to kill them to get a passage through. When they steered from the shore there was also an astonishing number of fish."

#### XI. CORAL REEFS AND ISLETS IN THE AUSTRALASIAN SEA.

From the volcanic island of Amsterdam, we must now take a glance of those innumerable low islands and reefs of rocks which are scattered over the greater part of the Australasian Sea to the eastward and northward of New Holland, and which are produced by an operation of nature different from that which lifted up Amsterdam; less violent, indeed, in its character, than that by which the latter emerged from the abyss; but affording a basis equally, if



## SUBDIVISIONS OF AUSTRALASIA.

not more, solid and enduring. A volcanic island not unfrequently breaks down its supporters, and sinks back into the cavity out of which it was hurled, as was recently the case with the Sabrina Island, near St Michael's; but the island of coral, created by slow and imperceptible degrees, hardens with time, and becomes one solid mass from the summit to the base.

Throughout the whole range of the Polynesian and Australasian islands, there is scarcely a league of sea unoccupied by a coral reef or a coral island; the former springing up to the surface of the water perpendicularly from the fathomless bottom, "deeper than did ever plummet sound;" and the latter in various stages, from the low and naked rock, with the water rippling over it, to an uninterrupted forest of tall trees. "I have seen," says Dalrymple, in his *Inquiry into the Formation of Islands*, "the coral banks in all their stages; some in deep water, others with a few rocks appearing above the surface: some just formed into islands, without the least appearance of vegetation; others with a few weeds on the highest part: and, lastly, such as are covered with large timber, with a bottomless sea at a pistol-shot distance." In fact, as soon as the edge of the reef is high enough to lay hold of the floating sea-wreck, or for a bird to perch upon, the island may be said to commence. The dung of birds, feathers, wreck of all kinds, cocoa-nuts floating with the young plant out of the shell, are the first rudiments of the new island. With islands thus formed, and others in the several stages of their progressive formation, Torres Strait is nearly choked up; and Captain Flinders mentions one island in it covered with the *Casuarina*, and a variety of other trees and shrubs,

which give food to parakeets, pigeons, and other birds, to whose ancestors it is probable the island was originally indebted for this vegetation. The time will come—however indefinite that period may appear—when New Holland, and New Guinea, and all the little groups of islets and reefs to the N. and N.W. of them, will either be united into one great continent, or be separated only by deep channels, in which the strength and velocity of the tide may obstruct the silent and unobserved agency of these insignificant but most efficacious labourers.

A barrier of coral reefs runs along the whole of the eastern coast of New Holland, "among which," says Captain Flinders, "we sought 14 days, and sailed more than 500 miles, before a passage could be found through them out to sea." Captain Flinders paid some attention to the structure of these reefs, on one of which he suffered shipwreck. "Having landed on one of these creations," he says, "we had wheat-sheaves, mushrooms, stags' horns, cabbage leaves, and a variety of other forms, glowing under water, with vivid tints of every shade betwixt green, purple, brown, and white." "It seems to me," he adds, "that when the animalcules which form the coral at the bottom of the ocean cease to live, their structures adhere to each other, by virtue either of the glutinous remains within, or of some property in salt water; and the interstices being gradually filled up with sand and broken pieces of coral washed by the sea, which also adhere, a mass of rock is at length formed. Future races of these animalcules erect their habitation upon the rising bank, and die in their turn, to increase, but principally to elevate, this monument of their wonderful labours." He says that they not only work perpendicularly,

but that this barrier wall is the highest part, and generally exposed to the open sea, and that the infant colonies find shelter within it. A bank is thus gradually formed, which is not long in being visited by sea birds; saline plants take root upon it, and a soil begins to be formed; a cocoa-nut, or the drupe of a pandanus, is thrown on shore; land birds visit it, and deposit the seeds of shrubs and trees; every high tide and gale of wind adds something to the bank; the form of an island is gradually assumed; and last of all comes man to take possession. If we should imagine one of these immense coral reefs to be lifted up by a submarine volcano, it would be converted into an insular or continental ridge of hills of limestone.

It is worthy of remark, that, in this great division of the globe, fully equal in extent to that of Europe, there is no quadruped larger than the kangaroo; that there is none of a ferocious character, and, in many of the islands, none of any description. Man only in Australasia is an animal of prey; and, more ferocious than the lynx, the leopard, or the hyæna, he devours his own species—in countries, too, where nature has done everything for his comfort and subsistence.

## CHAPTER III.

### AUSTRALIA.

AUSTRALIA, the largest island on the globe, is situated in the southern hemisphere ; and, as described in the preceding article, forms the mainland around which are clustered those groups of islands which in modern geography constitute the *fifth* great division of the earth's surface. Wilson Promontory, its most southern angle, is in Lat. 39. 11. S., and Cape York, its northernmost headland, in Lat. 10. 43. S. Its greatest breadth from N. to S. is thus 1708 geographical miles, or 1965 statute miles. Cape Byron, the eastern limit, is in Long. 153. 37. E., and Cape Inscription, in 112. 55. E., forms its westernmost point ; making the extreme length of the island from E. to W. about 2603 British miles, by an average breadth of 1200 miles—a tract of land well entitled to be called a continent, by which name it is frequently designated by geographers. Its superficies approximates to 2,900,000 square miles. That of the continent of Europe being 3,768,000 square miles, we can form some idea of its extent by comparison.

The nomenclature and geographical subdivisions of this island-continent have undergone many alterations from time to time, as the territory has become colonized. Before any

settlement had been effected by the British Government upon its shores, the entire island was designated New Holland, not only by the Dutch—from whom it received its name—but on our own charts and maps. The E. coast, first discovered and explored by Captain Cook in 1770, was named by him New South Wales. The middle portion of the N. coast bore the name of Arnhem Land, after the ship of its discoverer Zeachen in 1618. The W. and S.W. coasts were named in like manner by their discoverers, the Dutch navigators, in the seventeenth century, De Witt's Land, Endraught's Land, Edel's Land, Leeuwin's Land, and Nuyt's Land. That of Van Diemen's Land was given by Tasman to what he supposed was the southern peninsula of New Holland, but which was afterwards discovered by Bass to be an island. The colonists have been anxious to name it after its discoverer, and accordingly, since 1853, it has been called Tasmania.

Since this great territory has become the undisputed possession of Britain, other names, with the exception just mentioned, have, according to the law of nations, been substituted for the old Dutch titles. New South Wales is only applied now to a part of the E. coast territory. The name of the entire island also is changed from New Holland to the more appropriate designation of Australia, by which it is now universally recognised and described.

It is within the temperate zone that our colonies have been planted and successfully nurtured.

This section of Australia is politically divided into three provinces; which, with the western colony and the unsuccessful settlements in the northern section, we shall treat of severally under the following heads:—

## NEW SOUTH WALES.

1. NEW SOUTH WALES, including QUEENSLAND (for a separate notice of which see page 36).
2. VICTORIA.
3. SOUTH AUSTRALIA.
4. WEST AUSTRALIA.

### I. NEW SOUTH WALES.

New South Wales is bounded on the E. by the South Pacific Ocean; from Cape Howe to Wide Bay, forming a seaboard of 750 miles. A line drawn from Cape Howe in a N.W. direction inland, crossing the Australian Alps to the source of the Murray river, and continued along the N. bank of that stream as far down as 141. E. Long., is the southern boundary. From this point a line traced upon the map due N. until it forms a right angle with the parallel of 26. S., the northern boundary, constitutes its limits westerly. The jurisdiction, however, of the executive government and legislature of the colony extends beyond the northern boundary as far as Cape York and Port Essington.

*General History.*—In reviewing the history of New South Wales from its first settlement, there are three distinct eras in its political, social, and commercial progress, which mark its short but eventful annals to the present time. Firstly, its foundation and existence as a penal settlement; when it depended solely on support from the mother country. Secondly, the opening of the colony to independent and bounty emigrants, who rendered it a self-supporting colony; and thirdly, the recent gold discovery, which has made it one of the most wealthy and self-dependent provinces of our colonial empire. Each of these distinct eras has been marked

**by a complete change in the previous condition of the body politic, according as its destinies were influenced by a penal, a pastoral, and a mining population.**

During the first period referred to, the history of New South Wales may be considered solely an account of British colonization in the Australasian seas.

It was after the separation of the United States from this country that it was first proposed to establish a colony for the reception of convicts from Great Britain on the eastern shore of Australia, or New Holland, as it was then called; and in the year 1787 preparations were completed for carrying the design into effect. On the 13th of May 1787, a fleet consisting of eleven sail of ships, including a frigate and an armed tender, and having on board 565 male and 192 female convicts, with 200 troops, and several of their wives and children, set sail from Portsmouth, and, after a voyage of eight months, arrived at their destination on the 18th, 19th, and 20th of January 1788. Captain Arthur Phillip of the royal navy was appointed the first governor of the colony. Botany Bay, where it was proposed to fix the settlement, was found ill adapted for that purpose. In seeking for a more eligible situation, Captain Phillip entered the inlet to which Cook had given the name of Port Jackson, which he found one of the most capacious and safe harbours in the world, navigable for vessels of any burden fifteen miles from its entrance, indented with numerous coves, sheltered from every wind, and possessing the finest anchorage. Within this harbour, on the shores of Sydney Cove, thinly wooded, and the haunt of the kangaroo, but now marked out as the capital of the future empire, the British ensign was hoisted on the 26th of January 1788.

They immediately proceeded to clear the ground, to land the live stock and the stores, and to establish the colony, amounting to 1030 souls. It was some years before an adequate supply of provisions for the maintenance of the colony could be derived from the ungrateful soil. The settlers consequently depended on foreign supplies, which did not arrive, and they often experienced the severest privations.

Governor Phillip embarked for England in December 1792, when Lieutenant-governor Grose succeeded to the government. He was succeeded, on the 15th December 1794, by Captain Paterson of the New South Wales Corps; and, on the 7th August 1795, Governor Hunter, a captain in the royal navy, arrived, and immediately entered on his important office. From the year 1792 the improvement of the colony was decisive and rapid. The bulls and cows that had been originally brought to the new settlement had, by the carelessness of the keeper, been suffered to stray into the woods, and every subsequent search had proved ineffectual, when a fine and numerous herd of wild cattle was at length discovered in the interior of the country, evidently the progeny of the animals which had been so long lost to the settlers. At the close of the year 1795, the public and private stock of the colony consisted of 57 horses, 227 head of cattle, 1531 sheep, 1427 goats, 1869 hogs, besides a numerous breed of poultry. The total quantity of land in cultivation amounted to 5419 acres.

Governor Hunter quitted the colony in the year 1800, on the 27th September, and was succeeded by Captain Philip Gidley King, R.N., who had effected the settlement on Norfolk Island. His administration lasted six years, and



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was distinguished by what is termed the "Irish rebellion," which broke out about the year 1804.

A printing-press had been established in the colony about the year 1795 by Governor Hunter, and in March 1803 the *Sydney Gazette* was published by authority. In 1800 a copper coin was issued by the government. The colony was at this time governed by general orders issued by the government. Captain King does not seem to have been adequate to the magnitude of the trust committed to him. He quitted the colony in August 1806, and was succeeded by Captain William Bligh, R.N., who was even less qualified than his predecessor. He had given ominous proofs of his incapacity as commander of the *Bounty*, where by his tyrannical conduct he provoked the men to a mutiny; and his selection for the delicate task of rearing up this infant colony evinced a marked indifference to its welfare which merits decided condemnation. His administration produced exactly the consequences which might have been expected. So unwarrantable was his tyranny, and especially his persecution of one influential person, noted alike for his public spirit and for his private virtues, that the colonists, with all the honest indignation of freemen, declared against his authority; and, being aided by the officers and men of the New South Wales Corps, they deposed him, and, marching up to the government-house, they dragged him from his concealment behind a bed, and, carefully protecting his person and property, sent him on board a sloop of war, in which he set sail for Europe, after he had been governor for eighteen months. He was succeeded by General Macquarie on the 1st January 1810; the government having in the meantime, from 26th January 1808 to 26th

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December 1809, been successively administered by Lieutenant-colonels Johnstone, Foveaux, and Colonel W. Patterson. During the government of General Macquarie, which lasted for twelve years, the settlement made great progress in wealth and improvement. The population was increased by the influx of numerous convicts and some new settlers; though it was not till a later period that the full tide of emigration began to set in towards Australia. By aid from the British treasury, many public buildings were erected, roads were constructed, and the colonists, compelled by a season of drought in 1813, and animated by the spirit of discovery, made their way over the barrier of the Blue Mountains, hitherto deemed impassable. It was in search of new pasturage, and by following the course of the Grose river, that a pass was at last found, and a road commenced in the following year, over this mountain range, whose summits were considered by the aborigines to be inaccessible, and who often declared that there was no pass into the interior.\*

The departure of Governor Macquarie, on 1st December 1821, marks the close of the first era in Australian history, embracing a period of thirty-four years. During that time the convict-pioneers had cleared the wilderness, tilled the ground, constructed bridges, roads, and other public works, unaided by free labour or private capital, at an average expense of L.300,000 per annum to the British treasury, and a total cost, up to this date, of nearly L.10,000,000 sterling.

Major-general Sir Thomas Brisbane, K.C.B., a man of acknowledged science and talent, succeeded General Macquarie; and with his arrival commenced that influx of free

\* See *History of Australasia*, by R. Montgomery Martin, F.S.S.

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immigrants which gives a distinctive character to his and the succeeding administrations. As New South Wales became more and more a community of free British subjects, the acts of the governors were of less importance in marking the progress of events than the efforts of the colonists themselves.

In 1823 an act was passed authorizing the king to appoint a local council, consisting of seven members, to assist the governor in making laws for the colony, subject to His Majesty's approval. This concession, however, was not enough to meet the demands of the free colonists, and disagreements ensued, in consequence of which the governor returned to England before the expiry of his term of administration, delegating his power to Colonel Stewart, who acted as lieutenant-governor from the 1st December 1825 to the 18th December 1826. He was succeeded by Lieutenant-general Sir Ralph Darling, who, during his harsh administration of five years, made himself still more unpopular. He left the colony on the 21st October 1831. In 1829 a legislative council was formed, which passed an act to establish trial by jury, and several other beneficial measures.

The eighth governor of New South Wales was Major-general Sir Richard Bourke; the most statesman-like, and withal the most liberal-minded ruler the colony has yet had. To the state of public morals he especially directed his attention, and caused acts to be passed to regulate and endow public schools and places of worship. The waste lands of the crown were no longer granted to absentee holders, or at peppercorn rentals, but put up to public auction and sold to the highest bidder; the proceeds being employed to assist the emigration of free labour.

From the 5th December 1837 to the 23d February 1838,

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Lieutenant-colonel K. Snodgrass administered the affairs of the colony. He was succeeded by Sir George Gipps. This appointment was an unfortunate circumstance both for the new governor and the colony. His preconceived opinions of the high prerogatives belonging to the crown, in consequence of the settlement having been originally established without the aid of free capital or labour, rendered his administration, which lasted eight years and a half, a period of bitter political hostility between his government and the entire community, especially the higher class of free and independent colonists: and although no Australian governor's domestic life was of a more unsullied character than his, the acerbity of his temper banished from his presence many experienced men, whose private counsel would have been most beneficial to the newly-appointed governor. By this time the social and moral condition of the people had undergone a surprising degree of improvement from the influx of free immigrants. Joint-stock companies, also, were formed in the great metropolis, who despatched their staffs of officers, with paid-up capitals ranging from L.250,000 to L.1,000,000 sterling, to facilitate the operations of banking, effecting insurances and mortgages, so as to obtain a high interest for their money. During the year 1846, when Governor Gipps left the colony, the former amounted to L.1,320,000, and the latter to L.1,481,000, amongst a population of 190,000 people.

Lieutenant-general Sir Maurice O'Connell, commander-in-chief of the forces throughout Australasia, acted as governor between the 11th July and the 3d August 1846, when his successor arrived and assumed the administration

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of affairs. This was the tenth governor of New South Wales, Sir Charles Augustus Fitzroy, K.G.H., who was invested with the power and title of Governor-general of the Australian colonies, which gave him a contingent jurisdiction over the lieutenant-governors of Victoria, South Australia, Van Diemen's Land, and Western Australia. Happily the instructions from the home government allowed greater latitude to the colonists in the management of their own affairs than under Sir George Gipps. The government of Sir Charles Fitzroy was in consequence more popular than that of his predecessor. Two significant facts occurred, which tended to show the amicable relations between the government and the elected representatives of the council. One was the council's voting a considerable increase to the colonial secretary's salary, and handing him over back pay, with the full concurrence of all the elected members. The other was his Excellency recommending to Her Majesty that their Speaker should receive the honour of knighthood in virtue of his office. This title was conferred upon Sir Charles Nicholson, not, however, to be considered as the precedent for a rule. Sir Charles was some years afterwards made a baronet.

The growing wealth and prosperity of Port Phillip—which until 1851 was a dependency of New South Wales—likewise induced the Queen's government, in 1850, to grant the petition of the colonists in that section of Australia to be separated from the parent colony, and declare it to be a distinct province of the British crown under the title and name of Her Majesty, Victoria; at the same time granting to the new colony a representative legislature, besides extending the constitution of New South Wales.

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The Port Phillip district became the separate colony of Victoria on 1st July 1851. On 1st December 1859 the Northern, or Moreton Bay district, as already mentioned, became similarly the colony of Queensland.

Sir William Denison succeeded Sir Charles Fitzroy. Sir William, who had been governor of Tasmania, where he had acquired some public odium in connection with the convict system, which he supported against the views of the colonists, proved a popular as well as an able man when in his new sphere at Sydney. As a military engineer he took great interest, and an effective part also, in the railways and other public works which, at the time of his arrival, and in the near prospect of colonial self-government, were being projected in the colony. The new Constitution Act arrived on 16th October 1855, was proclaimed on 23d November, and came into operation the next year. The governor took the initiative in the new Legislature by himself naming the first premier of the new system. Mr Donaldson, the premier so named, resigned after a short tenure, and the transition from the old to the new system continued to be marked by such short-lived administrations. After two years of contention in the Assembly, or lower house, the ministry, under Mr Cowper, passed a reform measure conferring a greater electoral equality, universal suffrage, and the ballot. The Legislature under that measure assembled in 1859.

Governor Denison, who was transferred to the Madras Presidency, was succeeded by Sir John Young, formerly of the Ionian Islands. Sir John's title is that of Governor-in-chief of New South Wales, instead of Governor-general, as with previous governors. This change was no doubt

made in deference to the importance of Victoria. We shall now return to the year 1851, the memorable year of the discovery of the gold fields, and give some account, in accordance with our arrangement, of the third period of the colony's history.

The usual quinquennial census had taken place on 1st March 1851. The population (exclusive of Port Phillip) was 189,951, of which 108,691 were males and 81,260 females. The general statistics on the 31st December 1850 gave:—Live stock in the colony, 5,660,819 sheep, 952,852 horned cattle, 63,895 horses, and 23,890 pigs; 69,219 acres under cultivation, exclusive of vineyards, 995 acres producing 103,606 gallons of wine. Imports, L.1,333,413. Exports, L.1,357,784, including 14,270,622 lb. of wool, valued at L.788,051; and 128,090 cwt. of tallow, valued at L.167,858. Ordinary revenue, L.248,613. Coin in the colony, L.690,852. Paper currency, L.266,602. Shipping inwards, 421, of 126,185 tons. Shipping outwards, 506, of 176,762 tons. Mills: steam, 64; water, 38; wind, 26; horse, 30. Six woollen-cloth establishments producing 200,000 yards; 5 distilleries, 20 breweries; 3 sugar-refining, 16 soap and candle, 15 tobacco and snuff, 4 hat, and 4 rope manufactories; 36 tanneries, 5 salting and preserved-meat establishments, 93 tallow-melting do., 1 gas-work, 7 potteries, 1 glass-work, 1 smelting-work, 13 iron and brass foundries, and 5 ship-building yards.

From a letter written by Mr Edward Hammond Hargraves, to the colonial secretary, dated the 3d April 1851, we learn that on the 12th of February previous he had discovered the existence of gold among the alluvium of the surface rocks over a large area of crown lands within

the settled districts of the colony; which subsequently turned out to be from 20 to 30 miles beyond the town of Bathurst, an inland town 125 miles from Sydney. He was led to prosecute a search for the precious metal in that locality, from the similarity of that mountainous section of New South Wales to the auriferous regions of California, where he had successfully worked as a gold-digger.

After having intimated to the government that he was satisfied to leave to their liberal consideration any reward or remuneration they chose to offer him for his discovery, he posted off to Bathurst, and announced to the astounded inhabitants that they were living within a day's journey of the richest gold mines in the world. Followed by a number of the enterprising inhabitants, he led the way to Summer-hill Creek, and there, in a romantic vale, surrounded by hills, where this streamlet wound its course round a picturesque point of land, they dug the auriferous earth from the adjacent bank, washed it in the stream, and found that the soil was mixed with grains of gold. These gold-pioneers, who thronged to the first "diggings," reminded of the resemblance between their country and the rich gold mines mentioned in Scripture, called this spot the Valley of Ophir.

This was in May 1851, and it became the signal for the colonists in other parts of the territory to be up and doing, and thus led soon after to the discovery of the great gold fields of Victoria. Then followed a heterogeneous scramble for the coveted ore throughout the length and breadth of the land; artisans of every description threw up their employments, leaving their masters, and their wives and families to take care of themselves. Nor did the mania confine itself



to the labouring classes, for "these were soon followed by responsible tradesmen, farmers, captains of vessels, and not a few of the superior classes; some unable to withstand the mania and the force of the stream, or because they were really disposed to venture time and money on the chance; and others because they were, as employers of labour, left in the lurch and had no alternative."\* The ships in the harbour also were in a great measure deserted.† During this state of affairs, the government were obliged to raise the salaries of their officers, in order to maintain a sufficient staff for the public service and to preserve the public peace, which was becoming sadly disturbed. The banks and mercantile firms were obliged also to follow their example.

Meanwhile, the governments of New South Wales and Victoria—the two gold colonies—looked with apprehension upon the probable result of this gold-revolution amongst a pastoral population widely scattered over the country; a portion of whom had but recently been reclaimed from the ranks of the felon. A proclamation was issued asserting the right of the Queen's government to all gold or precious metals found on crown lands; and that every person digging therein in search of it, or any individuals trading or otherwise profitably employed at the diggings, must take out a monthly license and pay the sum of 30s. In New South Wales, upwards of 20,000 licenses were issued; and the export sheet from the port of Sydney showed that 142,975 ounces, valued at upwards of half a million sterling, had left the colony.

At the close of the year 1851, the prospects of New South Wales, in the sense of commerce and progress, were most

\* Lieut. governor Latrobe's Despatches.

† *Ibid.*

cheering. The population had increased to 197,168 persons. The value of the imports was L.1,563,931, and the exports L.1,796,912. Thus the average of the former, for every man, woman, and child in the colony, would be at the rate of L.8 per head, and of the latter about L.9. The ordinary revenue = L.277,728, and the crown revenue L.208,969; the coin in the colony L.560,766, and the paper currency L.418,541. The wool exported = 15,269,317 lb., valued at L.828,342; the tallow, 86,460 cwt., value L.114,168; and the gold 144,120 oz. 17 dwt., value L.468,336. Shipping inwards, 553 vessels of 153,002 tons, having 7955 men on board, and the shipping outwards 563 vessels of 139,020 tons, having 7988 men.

The crisis of the gold discovery having mingled among the records of the past, the colony of New South Wales was fairly started, in 1852, on the third era of her eventful history, which may be literally termed the golden era. Fresh discoveries of deposits of the precious metal occurred, but they all proved inferior in richness and quality to the gold fields of Victoria. At the same time, the average yield per digger equalled that of the younger colony, where the population on the gold fields was five times greater.

The progress of the colony during 1853, compared with its previous advancement, was in every way encouraging, both as regards its political condition and material prosperity. In common with the neighbouring colonies, New South Wales benefited by the establishment of steam communication with the mother country. A line of steamers was laid on between Australia and Singapore by the Peninsular and Oriental Company, conveying a mail every alternate month to join the overland mail from India to Europe,

which carried news from the colonies to England in sixty-five days. This was afterwards made a monthly communication *via* Galle, and the mails are delivered in London within fifty days.

*Topography.*—The colony of New South Wales, until the separation of Port Phillip, comprehended within its present boundary only nineteen counties; namely, Cumberland, Camden, St Vincent, Northumberland, Gloucester, Durham, Hunter, Cook, Westmoreland, Argyle, Murray, Brisbane, Bligh, Phillip, Wellington, Roxburgh, Bathurst, Georgiana, and King. The act which erected that district into an independent province, divided the squatting districts S. and N. of the nineteen counties into forty-nine more; namely, Cowley, Buccleuch, Dampier, Beresford, Wallace, Wellesley, Auckland, Macquarie, Hawes, Parry, Buckland, Pottinger, Inglis, Vernon, Dudley, Sandon, Raleigh, Gresham, Clarence, Richmond, Rous, Buller, Ward, Churchill, Stanley, Cavendish, Canning, March, Lennox, Fitzroy, Aubigny, Merivale, Bentinck, Drake, Clive, Gough, Hardinge, Darling, Napier, Gowen, Gordon, Monteagle, Clarendon, Selwyn, Lincoln, Ashburnham, Harden, Wynyard, Goulburn, making in all sixty-eight counties. They extend along the coast for about 800 miles, and into the interior about 180 miles. Not only is the whole of that extent of country thoroughly explored, and occupied by the settlers, but a trigonometrical survey has been nearly finished, so that the map of New South Wales, in the tracing of its mountains and streams, is assuming that detailed appearance presented by the ordinary maps of Europe.

*General aspect of the country.*—The general aspect of the country in the interior may be called mountainous or hilly, and covered with an open forest occasionally intersected by brushwood thickets. On the sea-coast, along which the great South Pacific Ocean rolls its tremendous surge, it is bold and rugged; and for five or six miles from the coast it wears a bleak and barren aspect, presenting a soil composed mainly of drift sand, scantily covered with stunted trees and shrubs. But this would give an inadequate and unfair description of the whole; for like the entire island itself, it is the most chequered country of good and bad land in the world. In the interior, rich and fertile valleys lie in the lap of these ranges, such as the Vale of Clywd, to the westward of the Blue Mountains; and extensive

undulating grassy plains, like those of Maneroo and Liverpool plains, are approached through a barren and rocky region. On the coast, also, the romantic and fertile district of Illawarra in Camden, a maritime county to the S. of Cumberland, is surrounded by a desolate region of barren hills, and the rich valley of the Hunter River system of waters contrasts with the Clarence and Richmond to the northward. Again, the tropical aspect of the jungles and mangrove swamps of Moreton Bay are so different from the verdant prairies of the Darling downs, almost destitute of timber, and with few streams, that the traveller approaching the former from the E. and the latter from the S. could scarcely imagine them to be in the same country within a thousand miles of each other, and yet they are contiguous. To give, therefore, the most succinct view of this territory, it would be necessary to describe each district. As our limits, however, prevent this, it will suffice to give the general character of the two great watersheds from the main range or cordillera which divides the eastern from the western streams. From Mount Kosciusko, 6500 feet high—the highest of the Australian Alps—situated 120 miles inland from Cape Howe, this range of mountains extends in a northerly direction through the whole extent of the colony to the boundary line at Moreton Bay. The rivers which flow to the eastward have a hundred outlets on the sea-coast, descending rapidly from their sources, which are on the average under 80 miles in a straight line from their outlets, and 1800 feet above the level of the sea, passing through a hilly region in a tortuous course. The streams flowing to the westward, deriving their sources from a thousand fountainheads, flow through extensive valleys and plains, describing a multitude of ramifications until they either join in one great river 400 miles from their sources, or lose their waters in extensive marshes. The land on the eastern streams is for the most part inferior in quality, both for agriculture and pasture, to that on the western streams. While the latter enjoys a cooler climate than the former, it consists also of a rich black and dry soil, covered with luxuriant herbage, interspersed here and there with valleys, open woodlands, and forests, whereon the herds and flocks of the settlers now graze, and a busy population of gold-seekers are digging up the ground for the hidden treasure. Again, on the river banks, which face the rising sun, the orange, the banana, and the vine grow abundantly; and the day is not far distant when wine, tobacco, and cotton will be

and cause the majority of sudden deaths. Ophthalmia, too, is not uncommon in the districts of the Hunter and Moreton Bay. The only instance of an epidemic visiting this country was in 1849, when the influenza carried off a number of the inhabitants; yet, notwithstanding these facts, and the assertions of inexperienced emigrants, the climate of New South Wales has been pronounced by good authorities to be one of the most healthy and salubrious on the face of the earth. As the aspect of the country, however, possesses no general feature whereby to describe its character, so the varieties of soil and climate in New South Wales cannot be classed under one general head. Not only are the warmer localities and poorer soils on the eastern shed of waters greatly different from the rich lands and cooler atmosphere on the western streams, but these again are diversified by the variations of latitude. The territory of New South Wales, as before stated, extends between the parallels of 26. and 38. S. lat., or about 800 statute miles; hence it will be naturally supposed to possess the graduated influence of solar heat at the sea-level alone to cause local variations of temperature. And this, added to the higher altitudes of the country inland, produces a variety of meteorological phenomena which materially affect the indigenous as well as the imported subjects of the animal and vegetable world. In ordinary parlance, therefore, it is as erroneous to speak of the climate of New South Wales generally as if there were one uniform recurrence of weather throughout that territory, as it would be to designate as one description of climate the varied weather which simultaneously occurs between Switzerland and the African shores of the Mediterranean; for there is as great a difference in the weather which happens in the regions between the Maneroo plains, elevated 2000 feet above the level of the sea, and situated at the base of the Australian Alps, covered with snow, and the intertropical district of Moreton Bay, within whose waters turtle abound: these being the extreme S. and N. boundaries of the colony. In the former region, the gooseberry and the apple flourish in the frigid atmosphere; in the latter, the pine-apple and the banana grow rich and luxuriantly in the open air. While the Maneroo settlers rear coarse-woolled sheep upwards of 100 lb. in weight, the Moreton Bay squatters have the finest-woolled merinos under 50 lb.; and their proprietors may be distinguished in the streets of Sydney, which lies midway between them, by the ruddy

English complexion of the one, and the sallow Indian face of the other.

*Vegetable Produce.*—The agricultural products of New South Wales comprehend all the cereals grown in Europe, and many which are confined to tropical countries. Of the former, wheat, barley, oats and rye, with hay, lucerne, and other kinds of fodder for cattle and horses, comprise the farmer's list; of the latter, maize, tobacco, and lately cotton, have been profitably cultivated. The barren soil, however, around the environs of Sydney, renders the inhabitants of that city and its suburbs dependent upon Van Diemen's Land for their supplies of grain. The Hunter River and other districts being subject to droughts, the cultivation of cereal crops is precarious. So devastating were their effects in early times, that the government had siloes on the Egyptian plan sunk on an island (Cockatoo), in Sydney harbour, and filled with grain in case of famine. In the above-named district, a large quantity of maize or Indian corn is produced, mainly for the food of horses, pigs, and poultry. The culinary vegetables common in this country thrive admirably in New South Wales,—such as potatoes, cabbages, carrots, parsnips, turnips, peas, beans, cauliflowers, lettuces, cucumbers, and pumpkins, besides sweet potatoes, yams, and plantains. Many of the former attain to greater perfection than in Europe, as the cauliflower and the brocoli; and green peas are to be had in Sydney all the year round; whilst a few degenerate, such as the bean. The colony is famed also for the abundance and variety of its fruits. Peaches, apricots, nectarines, loquats, oranges, grapes, pears, plums, figs, pomegranates, raspberries, strawberries, mulberries, and melons of all sorts, attain the highest degree of maturity in the open air. Added to these, the northern districts produce pine-apples, bananas, guavas, lemons, citrons, and other tropical fruits. Excepting on the high mountain districts to the westward and southward of Sydney, the climate is not so congenial to the production of northern fruits, such as the apple, the currant, the gooseberry, and the cherry. Grapes of the finest quality are produced in the colony, not only for the table, but for the manufacture of wine. The Australian tobacco, both from its quantity and its quality, is now fast superseding the importation of American tobacco. The olive-tree, likewise, grows luxuriantly, and a superior sample of oil has been produced. The cultivation of cotton upon the Bris-

hane River at Moreton Bay realized to the experimental planters, in 1852, a clear profit of L.12 per acre. Altogether, the capabilities of this varied soil and climate for the production of the universal staple commodities of cotton, tobacco, and wine, are unlimited. All that the colony requires, to raise them in sufficient abundance for her own consumption and foreign export, is capital and labour.

*Animal Produce.*—Of the indigenous animals in Australia, we have already given some account. We shall notice here, therefore, more particularly the capabilities of the country for rearing imported stock, poultry, &c., and those birds and fishes used as food by the colonists. The climate is peculiarly congenial to the growth and increase of live stock. The breed of horses, both thoroughbred and half-bred hacks, is such that they are exported to India for the purpose of supplying the East India Company's cavalry and artillery. The horned cattle are, in many instances, of a gigantic size, weighing from 13 to 14 cwt. The sheep are mostly of the fine merino breed; but, on the elevated downs, the Leicester breed, crossed with the merino, thrive best, and give a heavier carcase, with a greater quantity of coarse wool, than the pure-bred stock. From the dry nature of the herbage, the mutton and beef has not that rich flavour which is so much prized in English-fed cattle and sheep.

*Birds.*—Domestic fowls of every description thrive admirably, and may be reared at small expense. Geese become fat upon the native grasses, and the barn-door fowl picks up sufficient food in summer amongst the insects in the bush. Ducks likewise require very little artificial food, only they are subject to some unknown disease which checks their increase; while turkeys and pea fowl, which are delicate to rear in Europe, require little or no care. Guinea-fowl also are easily reared, and all of them fatten better upon cracked maize than upon oats. The same holds true, also, in the feeding of horses. Besides the domestic fowls, game birds also are abundant, including the quail, snipe, land-rail, water-rail, duck, pigeon, and the native turkey, or bustard of the plains. Parrots are found in myriads, and at certain seasons make a tolerably good pie; and the cockatoo also is eaten. We may here mention that the tail of the kangaroo makes a richly-flavoured soup. The tail may

be considered the only part of an indigenous quadruped fit for food.

*Fishes.*—Fish are plentiful in the bays along the coast, but they are not so abundant in the rivers. The fresh-water codfish, however, in the Murray River, are of a large size, weighing sometimes as much as 70 lb., and 30 lb.<sup>9</sup> being common. Eels are also caught in the marshes and lagoons, 12 and even 20 lb. in weight. The salt-water fish are numerous. The schnapper is like our cod, and the best and largest fish in the Australian seas, with the exception of the trumpeter at Hobart Town. Rock-cod, flat-heads, taylor-fish, mackerel, soles, and guard-fish, constitute the ordinary kinds brought to Sydney market; but few of them have the substance and flavour of British fishes, from which they are distinct in species. Crayfish are abundant, and fine flavoured; the crabs are of the most beautiful colours, but none of them edible. Prawns and shrimps are sold in the markets. Fresh-water mussels are found of a large size, but not wholesome to eat; and the salt-water mussels are small. Oysters, however, of three kinds, are plentiful: the rock-oyster, the stream-oyster, and the mud-oyster, which are all edible; the stream-oyster being of the most delicate flavour. Turtle are found at Moreton Bay, where the aborigines are employed by the settlers in procuring them for the Sydney market; they are, however, not equal in flavour to the West India turtle.

*Minerals.*—Now that the mineral treasures of Australia have become the leading item in the wealth of the country, the attention of the government, and of the colonists generally, has been directed to the geological structure of the country. To give the most brief synopsis of this important subject would occupy more space than we can afford. A general view of the gold-fields has been given in the section treating of the discovery: we must content ourselves here with noticing those other minerals which have been productive of wealth and utility to the colonists. Between the Blue Mountains and the sea-coast are those extensive sandstone plains where the strata are lying in a horizontal position, with a slight dip to the westward. On this the city of Sydney is built, and the great mass of its buildings are constructed of this rock, which is more friable than ordinary freestone. The roads are “mettled” with the whinstone or basalt obtained from the Blue Mountain ranges. In the



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county of Argyle, a beautiful grained marble has been found, which makes up into handsome chimney-pieces. Copper has been worked for several years in the mountain ranges around Bathurst; but the ores that are the richest (pyrites) are found only in small quantities, while those most abundant are of inferior quality. Oxydulated iron ore, from which is manufactured the finest description of steel, has been worked at Berrima, but not successfully. Potters' clay and rock porcelain exist also among the rocks N. of Sydney harbour. But by far the most valuable mineral worked in New South Wales, prior to the gold discovery, has been coal. The Coal Measures on the Hunter River extend over the great basin of that river and its tributaries, down to the sea-coast at Newcastle, where the seam of coal is seen cropping out on the beach. Until within the last eight years, these coal measures were worked under a monopoly held by the Australian Agricultural Company. This, however, has been infringed upon successfully by the adjoining proprietors of land containing coal, who work now under sanction of the authorities. About 10 pits are in operation, and a considerable trade is carried on between Port Hunter and the adjoining colonies, as well as with New Zealand and California. For further particulars upon this subject, and an analysis of the soils as applied to agriculture, we refer the reader to the excellent work of Count Strzlecki.

*Population.*—We shall now proceed to notice the increase of the European settlers in New South Wales.

It will be remembered that the colony, when first established at Sydney, as detailed in the first section of this article, consisted of 1030 individuals, 700 of whom were convicts; and that notwithstanding the famine and distress which occurred at intervals, and the discouragement of emigration by some of the authorities, the population, owing to the fineness of the climate and the number of convicts sent out, rapidly increased. A census taken at eight different times gives the following result in the month of March in each year:—

	Males.	Females.	Totals.
1810 .....	...	...	8,923
1821 .....	...	...	29,783
1828 .....	...	...	36,598
1833 .....	...	...	71,070
1836 .....	55,539	21,557	77,096

	Males.	Females.	Totals.
1841 .....	87,263	43,549	130,812
1846 .....	114,709	74,813	189,522
1851 .....	106,229	81,014	187,243
1856 .....	147,091	119,098	266,189

The apparent decrease at the census of 1851 was in consequence of the separation of Port Phillip, at which period it numbered an additional population of 77,000, giving a total of 264,000 for the old boundaries of the province before the gold discovery. The population in later years is given in an earlier part of the article.

The proportion of the colonists from the United Kingdom and their descendants may be taken thus: out of 10 individuals there are 4 English, 3 Irish, 2 Scotch, and 1 other nations. Of course no apparent nationality of character has as yet resulted from this intermixture; but if we may judge from the few native-born men and women we have met, there is every likelihood of the future Australian people resembling their cousins of Anglo-Saxon descent on the other side of the Atlantic.

*Internal Intercourse.*—The country of New South Wales, recently a pathless forest, is now intersected in all directions by excellent roads. The royal mail proceeds from Sydney to all the different towns in the interior, and letters are delivered with punctuality and despatch. Postage stamps are used for letters as in Britain. Stage-coaches with four horses also start daily from Sydney, and from other places; so that there is every facility of internal intercourse by land; while numerous steam-vessels leave Sydney and ply along the coast to the different sea-ports. A railway is also being constructed between Sydney and Goulburn, *via* Parramatta, while other lines proceed towards the west and the north. The electric telegraph now connects New South Wales with the adjoining colonies.

*Education.*—Great efforts have been made in New South Wales to promote education among all classes, and numerous excellent seminaries have been established. Sydney College was instituted in 1830, where the youth of the colony are taught the ancient languages, English literature, and the rudiments of the sciences. On 11th October 1852, Sydney University was inaugurated by the Governor-general. A classical professor, a professor of mathematics, and a professor of chemistry and the philosophy of physics, were ap-

pointed. The first session closed satisfactorily, with 24 matriculated students, in December 1852. It is founded upon the same liberal principle with regard to the exclusion of religious tests, as that recognised by the government in extending its support to all religious denominations. The degrees of this university were subsequently, by imperial concession, placed on an equality with those of like institutions in Britain. The number of schools in the colony on the 31st December 1852 was 423; number of scholars, 11,118 males, 10,002 females; total, 21,120. Of these schools, 227 were private, and 196 public ones. The city of Sydney possesses a mechanics' school of arts, a female school of industry, an infirmary and dispensary, a benevolent asylum, an Australian subscription library, a chamber of commerce, a museum and botanic gardens, a botanic and horticultural society, and various other societies connected with religion, literature, and science. The press, as usual, lends its aid to the diffusion of knowledge. In Sydney there are two daily and eight weekly newspapers, besides one three times, and two, including the *Government Gazette*, twice a-week: also one in Goulburn, two in Bathurst, two in Maitland, and one in Brisbane, published weekly.

*Religion.*—It is here to be remarked, that all classes, of whatever creed, enjoy equal rights, and are equally eligible to offices of honour or emolument. One-seventh of the land was formerly appropriated to the support of the Episcopal Church: it is still applicable to the general purposes of religion and education, but without any distinction of sects, all of which participate equally in the government fund. The Episcopalian Church was formerly within the diocese of Calcutta, but is now subject to two bishops who reside in the country.

*Currency.*—Prior to 1817 the currency consisted principally of the private notes of merchants, traders, shopkeepers, publicans; and the amount was sometimes as low as sixpence. In that year the Bank of New South Wales was established, with a capital of L.20,000, whose notes superseded this objectionable currency. Subsequently the capital was increased to L.300,000, and the bank exists in a flourishing state to this day. The same cannot be said, however, of the second bank, established by local shareholders in 1825, known as the Bank of Australia, with a capital of L.300,000 paid

up; for after eighteen years' mismanagement the directors had to prop up their bankrupt circulation by borrowing at a large interest from other banks, which ultimately not only swallowed up the assets of the company, but the unfortunate shareholders sustained further loss than their shares. In 1834, British capital and experience was brought to bear upon the commercial transactions of the colonists, by the establishment of the Bank of Australasia, with a paid-up capital of L.900,000, which obtained a charter of incorporation, and, with varied success, still exists. One of the most successful banks in Australia is the Union Bank of Australia, an Anglo-Australian joint-stock bank, with unlimited liability, having a paid-up capital of L.1,000,000. The great profits shown by these banks led to the formation of three new Anglo-Australian banks. These were the Joint-Stock Bank of Australia, the London and Australian Chartered Bank, and the English, Scottish, and Australian Chartered Bank. A considerable local bank, the Australian Joint-Stock, followed. All have paid good dividends, varying from 10 to 20 per cent., one or two of the newer banks excepted. Of late, however, the effects of the competition of so many additional institutions has tended to diminish profits, and the dividends have been less conspicuous during the last year or two since 1858.

## II. VICTORIA.

Victoria has been a separate and distinct colonial government only since 1st July 1851. Prior to that date its territory comprised the southern portion of New South Wales, and hence was sometimes officially designated the Southern District, in contradistinction to the Moreton Bay country, which was called the Northern District, the intervening territory being the Middle District. These names, which were imposed by the home government in 1842, are now superseded by later territorial changes, the last of which, in 1859 detaches the northern section as a new colony under the name of Queensland. The Port Phillip district, or briefly Port Phillip, was another of the early

names for Victoria, and derived, of course, from the distinguishing feature of the harbour; besides which, as the late Sir Thomas Mitchell, while exploring the interior, had termed a portion of it Australia Felix, the ambitious colonists, improving the hint, had willingly extended so attractive a name to the whole territory. Some confusion that was likely to arise from these diversities was promptly arrested in 1851 by the gracious wish of her Majesty to distinguish the young colony by her own name.

Victoria thus occupies the south-eastern extremity of the great territory of Australia. Its southern coasts are washed by Bass's Strait, into which its projecting headlands penetrate as far as 39. S. Lat. From Cape Howe, the eastern extremity, a straight line to the nearest source of the Murray separates Victoria from New South Wales, the river continuing the division till it reaches 141. E. Long., where the 'South Australian frontier to both the other colonies begins. Victoria is thus left with about 86,000 square miles, and is somewhat closely circumscribed between the spacious areas of the two sister settlements. The Murray, in its course along the north makes a great southerly deflection towards Port Phillip, which was probably not accurately known seventeen years ago, when the dividing line was fixed, but which leaves a large area on the north side territorially connected with New South Wales, but commercially and otherwise with Victoria. In the same way, Portland, the western seaport of Victoria, commands the commerce of adjacent parts of South Australia. The mining wealth of Victoria, by enabling that colony to construct railways and roads more rapidly than its neighbours, will presently still further disturb these boundaries. For the

moment, however, the success of South Australia in the steam navigation of the Murray, and more lately also of the Darling, has been the most prominent circumstance in aiding the commerce of the interior.

*History.*—This colony of Victoria is now, from recent events, so familiar to us, that we are apt to forget how brief an interval has elapsed since its territory, and even its coastline, were totally unknown. At the beginning of this century Bass had only just ascertained that the southern coast of Australia was not continuous to Van Diemen's Land, but separated by the strait now bearing the discoverer's name. Bass, who made his important observations in 1798, by means of a whale boat from Sidney, reached only to Western Port. The discovery of Port Phillip, only about 25 miles farther west, was reserved for Lieutenant Murray, R.N., in February 1802, in the small government brig the *Lady Nelson*. In April following the celebrated Flinders came independently upon the same harbour, having also detected its not very distinguishable entrance. He noticed the strong eddying current caused at the entrance by the tides rapidly traversing a comparatively narrow channel with a very variable depth. This circumstance has caused the deposition of extensive sandbanks in the still water inside the Port Phillip Heads; and the process is so obvious and uniform, that one is almost tempted to estimate the extent of the geological era that has elapsed since the ocean first broke into the great lake, and deposited the first of its daily tribute of sand. Flinders also observed the pastoral adaptation of the surrounding country, having landed between the present sites of Melbourne and Geelong, and walked

## AUSTRALIA.

across the grassy plain to Station Peak, where some observations were made. This country, then silent and empty, is now traversed by railways and electric telegraphs. The subsequent capture by the French, and long imprisonment at Mauritius, of this distinguished navigator, prevented the results of his voyage from being given to the public until 1814. It is amusing now, when we consider the celebrity and importance of this well-known colony, and of its adjacent contemporary sister South Australia, to look back upon the time, little over a century, when these places were so utterly unknown that Swift selected this "to the northwest of Van Diemen's Land" for the amusing scene of his Lilliputian extravagances!

The permanent colonization of the Port Phillip country dates only from 1835. The imperial government projected an earlier settlement by despatching, in 1803, a party of convicts under Collins, whose temporary location is still visible between the Port Phillip Heads and the hill called Arthur's Seat. The convicts were next year transferred to Hobart Town. The circumstance is interesting, from several of them who had run off having been left behind, one of whom, Buckley, the sole survivor, betook himself to aboriginal life, and met the colonists, above thirty years afterwards, as they arrived from Van Diemen's Land to retake possession. This was in the year 1835. Eleven years earlier, an overland expedition under Hume and Hovell had penetrated from New South Wales to the Port Phillip shore near Geelong; and during the previous year, in 1834, a pastoral and whaling settlement at Portland Bay had been effected from Launceston in the north of Van Diemen's Land, thus first occupying simultaneously at their respec-

tive extremities the two colonies of Victoria and South Australia.

Portland failed to achieve much consequence. The great attraction was Port Phillip, so called from one of the New South Wales governors, Captain Phillip King. There were two parties of colonizing adventurers, under their respective heads, Batman and Fawkner; the former having been first on the ground, the latter party having selected and settled upon the site of Melbourne. The former having procured an aboriginal conveyance of all the country hereabouts, came to repeated disputes with the later invaders, but were unable to evict the enemy. The claim was set up with but little of precedent for guidance, and good hopes of success were entertained by Batman and his friends; for, under the stimulating influence of some flour, blankets, tomahawks, &c., Jagga Jagga and other aboriginal worthies had very freely parted with their paternal acres, and that, too, with all the English formalities of signing their "mark," and delivering the handfuls of their lightly-held soil. In this case, as in the similar one subsequently of New Zealand, the government refused to recognise such contracts. Had it been otherwise, 600,000 acres would have thus passed into private possession, and including, as this area did, the towns and suburbs of Melbourne and Geelong, the property might, within twenty years, have been valued at many millions sterling. Batman's party was awarded a small remuneration of L.7000. Melbourne is already a large city, with extensive suburbs, representing an immense colonial trade, and containing 125,000 people; while Geelong contains one-fifth of that number. The early history of colonies is commonly barren of great public



interest ; but in this case the contrast is extreme, even in the uniform success of our colonial experience.

Mitchell's account of Australia Felix, and the great success and greater hopes of the earlier colonists of Port Phillip, fell contemporaneously upon the ears of the home public, and forthwith emigration to this country became a mania. The considerable capital that the emigrants took with them operated somewhat as the gold discoveries did on a much greater scale a dozen years afterwards. Property "went up." In 1837 the chief towns of Melbourne, Geelong, and Portland had been laid out. In the two first there was already a busy scene of speculative buying and selling. All who aspired to fortune attended the land auction sales, government as well as private ; and he who bade boldest generally came off best, as he was sure to resell at a profit. The end of this was a crisis in 1842-43, and a sore depression for a time, from which, however, the colony emerged, industrious and again prosperous.

The Port Phillip shores having been first settled from Van Diemen's Land, the government of that colony put forward a claim to the administration of the new country. Its territory was comprised, however, within the ample area that had some time before been allotted to New South Wales, and the government and people of that colony were not slow in feeling alive to the awakening importance of the southern district. A magistrate was despatched from Sydney in 1836 ; and in the following year the governor himself, Sir Richard Bourke, visited the new scene. The settlement whose administration was thus coveted soon began to entertain ideas of its own independence. It was undergoing a very rapid development, so far as regarded

the external aids of population and capital, and the unrivalled pastures of the interior; while, from the seat of government being 600 miles distant, and the local sub-authorities having very limited powers, public works and improvements, although urgently required, were very slowly and reluctantly granted, and by no means in proportion to the revenues contributed by the thriving young settlement. In December 1840 an assemblage of colonists, termed comparatively a great public meeting, passed with general consent resolutions approving of separation from the Sydney government. The subject was diligently followed up; and Dr Lang's motion in its favour, in 1844, in the New South Wales legislature, where he and several others represented Port Phillip, although greatly outvoted at the time, was the first of a series of steps that seven years afterwards resulted in the desired accomplishment.

At this date of separation, when, on 1st July 1851, Victoria took its position as a distinct colonial government, only sixteen years had elapsed since Batman erected his hut upon Indented Head, to the south of the Geelong arm of Port Phillip, and not quite that interval since Fawkner's party squatted upon the grassy slope and open forest of gum trees that are now the busy market-square of Melbourne. The population, by the census of 2d March previous, was 77,345 colonists, and Melbourne contained 23,143; while the second town, Geelong, numbered above 8000. For that year the value of the imports was L.1,056,437, and of the exports L.1,422,909; the latter still consisting, as before, chiefly of wool (L.734,618), although for the last quarter of this year the Australian gold had begun to expand the colonial commerce, and amounted

to L.438,777. The shipping entered inwards was 710, with a tonnage of 128,959. The public revenue was L.316,532. These were respectable attainments for so young a colony, and might even to-day have been much more copiously alluded to, were it not that all preceding colonial pretensions were utterly dwarfed by the expansion consequent upon the gold-mines.

It is worth devoting a moment of attention, however, to the commerce that characterized Victoria, and indeed Australia generally, prior to the present absorbing and prominent gold-mining. We could only fully appreciate the lightly-timbered or open grassy country of Australia by observing the slow and toilsome process of removing a North American forest. Ere one, perhaps, of its innumerable giants had been cut down, the corresponding expanse of Australia was quietly occupied by sheep which browsed on the natural grass, and each year yielded up the wealth of its valuable fleece without the cost of capital, and almost without the effort of labour. Ere the whole forest was swept off, the Australian downs had perhaps already assumed a new phase. Well-made roads passed between fields of grain, and the smoke of towns and villages told of industry and prosperity to increasing numbers of colonists. The sheep had disappeared, driven off with ready step to remoter pastures, equally accessible and useful to them, although as yet shut to the slower march of agricultural and city industry. The wealth derived from the facile export of the wool had already contributed to social amelioration and progress, and the labour power that was not required for the extirpation of a colossal forest had been free for application in other ways that may have proved

more congenial to comfort and wellbeing. These considerations explain the prompt and rapid development of Australian commerce, and the marked prosperity of its colonization. Victoria was a country ready-made at nature's hand. The squatter or sheepholder at once used it; and as fast as he could breed or import his stock, he spread them over its fifty-five millions of acres, of which two-thirds were available to him for pasture. In 1837 there were about 175,800 lb. of wool exported; in 1850 this quantity had increased to eighteen millions of pounds weight, with the additional export of 4500 tons of tallow. In the earlier years the young settlement was still importing sheep and cattle from the two senior colonies to the north and south; but four years had scarcely elapsed ere the fat stock of the Port Phillip pastures were already a promising article of export, and the subject of a trade whose increase and prosperity was interrupted only by that great event that has latterly made Australia the world's object, and introduced a marked change in this and many other of these colonies' earlier commercial and social developments.

*Gold Discovery.*—We have now arrived at the great era of this colony, the discovery of its gold-fields. The accounts from California had early drawn attention to the probability of gold-mines being found in this part of Australia; and this idea was strengthened by the repeated assurances of Sir R. I. Murchison in England, given even before the Californian discovery, and founded on the examination of specimens of the Australian Cordillera brought to this country by Count Strzelecki. So early as 1849 there was a rumour of gold having been found at a place called Clunes. At this stage,

however, the question slept, until the colonists were startled into fresh life two years afterwards by the discoveries of Hargraves near Bathurst, in New South Wales. These discoveries, which took place in February 1851, and were made public in May, caused a general and immediate search throughout all the quartz and gravel regions of Victoria, and the necessity of the case soon added the convenient word "prospecting" to the colonial vocabulary. Anderson's Creek, 16 miles east of Melbourne, discovered in August, was the first ascertained of the gold-fields; but although still worked, it has never attained to any celebrity. In September the great field of Ballarat, about 80 miles to the westward, was occupied, and its riches partially ascertained; while only a month later, and as the colonists flocked from all quarters to this attractive scene, the earlier diggers were already swarming off to the newer fields, for the time more attractive, around Mount Alexander. A few months more, and the yet greater marvels of Bendigo were proclaimed. For some time this field became the most conspicuous, and extraordinary quantities of gold were taken from it. By the middle of 1852 above 50,000 persons were collected there, and the sudden demand for the necessities of life raised the rate of carriage to 20s. per ton per mile, and advanced the price of flour from L.25, its rate at Melbourne, to L.200 per ton.

For several months during the spring of 1852 (August to November) the yield of gold in the colony was greater than it has ever since attained, and was estimated at 400,000 ounces, or L.1,600,000 per month. It was derived chiefly from Bendigo, and in particular from a district called the White Hills, which, however, were soon undermined and ex-

hausted of their rich deposits, that were mainly contained in a very thin layer of the drift. In September the government had instituted an armed escort for the purpose of conveying, at a moderate charge, the gold to the shipping ports; and for a time these great results brought more than one rival escort company into the field, as the impatient diggers were provoked by the leisurely character of official procedure. Meanwhile, the news of these acquisitions had brought tens of thousands from the adjacent colonies, and towards the end of 1852 this stream was largely augmented by that which rolled in from the other hemisphere, from India, Europe, and America, but especially from the mother country. The population was doubled in twelve months, and the port at length so crowded with shipping, that as much time and expense were involved in conveying the merchandise by lighters nine miles up the River Yarra to Melbourne as in the whole preceding voyage of half the world's circuit.

The natural effects of all this wealth and commerce soon appeared. At first, from the general desertion for the gold fields, landed and house property actually fell in value, especially the latter, as many tenements were left entirely empty, and were gladly let or sold at great reductions. This depression lasted but a brief interval. During 1852 and 1853 rents advanced tenfold, and many estates, town allotments, &c., yielded an annual rental of several times more than the fee-simple value just prior to the gold discovery. There were instances of fancy suburban sites being purchased for L.1 an acre, and resold for L.1000. But this upward rush in valuation could not go on for ever. It came to a halt towards the end of 1853, and then the lively co-

lonists found that, like the oscillations of a pendulum, they had travelled beyond the right mark, and must be content partially to retrace. With little intermission, these inflated values have ever since been gradually subsiding; and, although they are still far in advance of the humble estimates prior to the gold-fields, yet they exhibit a very unsatisfactory appearance to the sanguine investors who went in for investment at the culminating season.

The yield of gold has fluctuated considerably in each year since 1851; but since 1856 there has been a steady diminution in the quantity by about one million sterling annually. Having in a preceding section of this article gone fully into this subject, we shall now merely furnish in detail, for the convenience of reference, three different records of the gold production. The first column represents the official Customs return, known to be very defective, particularly during the hurry and turmoil of the years 1851-53, in omitting the gold sent overland to South Australia and New South Wales, and large ascertainable quantities to adjacent colonies, besides the less certain unrecorded exports to remoter places. The second column gives the Registrar-General's estimate, which corrects the two first omissions, but does not deal with the third, although acknowledging it. The third column, which agrees with the estimates of the Melbourne Chamber of Commerce and the gold-brokers, gives a correction for all omissions. It is undoubtedly the nearest to the truth, although not official. The second column, carefully prepared by Mr Archer the Registrar-General, may now be considered as the proper official return. The reader may note that the two first columns represent value *exported*, while the third gives

value *produced*, the latter including about L.500,000 of gold that may be at the ports uncleared, in the public safes, or on the road from the mines. The Registrar-General's valuation of the gold is taken at 80s. per oz. all round, while that for the Customs was the declared value at time of shipment, and agrees generally with the value entered in the last column connected with the broker's estimate. To the amount of this latter column, therefore, we must add L.3,241,551, in order to bring up the valuation throughout to 80s. per ounce.

*Gold Produce of Victoria, 1851-60.*

Year.	Exported as per		Produced as estimated by	
	Customs.	Reg.-Gen.	Brokers, &c	Valued at, per ounce
	L.	L.	L.	s.
1851	438,777	580,587	1,035,411	60
1852	6,135,728	10,899,733	14,866,799	70
1853	8,644,529	12,600,083	11,588,782	75
1854	8,255,550	9,568,262	8,770,796	80
1855	10,904,150	11,172,261	11,856,292	...
1856	11,943,458	11,942,783	14,134,108	...
1857	10,987,591	11,046,113	10,424,160	...
1858	10,107,837	10,112,752	9,685,844	...
1859	9,122,037	9,122,702	9,552,080	...
1860	8,624,860	...	...	...

Before leaving the subject of the gold of Australia, we may remark that the precious metal is derived there as elsewhere from the ancient slaty rocks of the Silurian system. It was from an examination of specimens of these rocks from the Eastern Australian mountain chain, and from the described direction of that chain, that Sir R. I. Murchison inferred the existence of gold in Australia. His experience was largely derived from the features of the



**Ural chain.** The gold is restricted to the eastern slopes of that range ; in Australia it is on the western slopes. In the Ural and elsewhere the gold is chiefly derived from the quartz reefs or veins of the Lower Silurian rocks; in Australia the thicker reefs are mostly in the Lower Silurian, the thinner in the Upper Silurian, but the latter not unfrequently the richer in gold. The Australian reefs seem all but innumerable, although many are not auriferous. The two leading features of the auriferous system are these reefs and the alluvial deposits. The latter are what the miners are most familiar with. They represent three different ages; the two newest belonging to late tertiary eras ; while the other deposits, which comprise the "drifts" of the gullies, have to all appearance resulted partly from atmospheric causes, but chiefly from the causes that hollowed out the present valleys, and gave the country generally its present configuration.

*Population.*—The progress of Victoria since 1851 is a series of marvels which no British colonial experience had ever previously exemplified. We have already given the results of the census of March 1851. A hurried and probably very imperfect census, taken in April 1854, gave the population as 236,000 ; but one more carefully completed in March 1857 made it 410,766, which number included 25,424 Chinese and 1768 aborigines. Exclusive of these races, there were 383,574 nearly all of European blood, but disproportionately consisting of 237,761 males and only 145,813 females. Of the Chinese only 23 were females. The aborigines were reduced to this slender enumeration from probably five times the number at the first settlement of the colony twenty-two years pre-

vously. The distribution of the colonists in 1857 was as follows:—Melbourne and suburbs, 92,300; Geelong, 23,338; rural districts, 109,000; mining districts, 166,550. According to the Registrar-General's Returns, the population at 31st December 1860 was 548,353, of whom 342,727 were males, and 205,626 females. This number includes about 30,000 Chinamen, a race whose presence in such large numbers in the colony has been the subject of much debate and difference of opinion, resulting in the imposition of certain legislative restrictions having the object of checking the strength of the immigration. We have already, however, entered more fully on this subject.

*Commerce.*—The imports for 1851, as we have seen, had attained the considerable amount of L.1,056,437; in 1857 they amounted to L.17,256,209. But these large figures scarcely exemplify the suddenness of the increase of the colonial commerce; for so early as 1853 the imports had attained to L.15,843,000, and the following year to no less than L.17,743,000; but the market having for a time been overdone by these efforts, subsequent years showed a diminution. The imports of 1859 were in these proportions:—Produce or manufacture of the United Kingdom, L.10,263,468; of British possessions, L.3,242,325; of other foreign places, L.2,117,098; total L.15,622,891. One chief feature in these amounts is the large trade which they indicate with the United States, whence breadstuffs, furniture, mining-tools, &c., with increasing supplies of the great luxury of ice, are now regularly imported. The value of the importation from the States for 1851 was only L.122, while for 1859 it was L.789,180.

The exports in 1851 had amounted to L.1,422,909. In 1852 they are officially set down as L.7,451,509, but are known to have amounted to nearly L.15,000,000, as large quantities of that great yield of gold already alluded to had been ascertained to have left the colony unrecorded at the custom-house. In 1859 the exports amounted to L.13,857,859, of which L.9,122,037 represented gold, while the wool was L.1,756,950. The exports are nearly all shipped direct to Britain. The shipping inwards in 1851 numbered 710, of tonnage 128,959: while in 1859 it was 2026, of tonnage 634,113.

*Agriculture.*—Agriculture, checked at first by the attractions and success of pastoral pursuits over the rich and extensive pastures of the young colony, was a second time depressed by the still more complete absorption of the gold-fields. Latterly, however, this state of things has been entirely altered, and Victoria has a greater breadth under cultivation than any of the adjacent colonies, excepting South Australia, where agriculture has been long and eminently successful. In 1851 there were but 57,298 acres cultivated. In 1859 these had increased to 297,055 acres; of which 77,705 acres were sown with wheat, and 76,935 acres with oats. For 1861, the area is 419,252 acres; while in South Australia, for the same time, it is 428,816 acres.

*Live stock and wool.*—The effect of the gold discoveries has been to check, in a marked manner, that rapidity of increase in sheep-breeding and the production of fine wool that was previously the great feature of the colony. To

a great extent this was the result of the sudden and large increase of the population, whose meat-consuming powers are beyond all the usual ratio of older countries and poorer masses of population. It was due partly also to the more precarious tenure of those large pastoral areas that were once occupied only by sheep and cattle, but now by tens of thousands of mining families. In 1853 the sheep numbered 6,033,367, which was the highest quantity attained. In 1859 they were only 5,578, 413, notwithstanding yearly accessions from the flocks of New South Wales. The other kinds of live stock have, however, steadily increased; cattle in the latter year numbering 699,330, and horses 68,323. The wool production fell off with the sheep. In 1854 the export had reached 22,998,000 lb., and in 1855, 22,353,000 lb.; while in 1857 it was only 17,176,920 lb., and in 1859, with a considerable recovery, 21,660,295 lbs. These quantities of wool are beyond the proportion yielded by the corresponding number of sheep—a circumstance that arises from the fact, that a considerable part of the New South Wales clip is annually directed across the frontier of that colony for shipment at the nearer seaports of Victoria.

*Other exports.*—Tallow was another article which, following in the wake of the wool, gave promise of a large yearly trade, but which has been similarly depressed by the gold-fields' influences. The quantity exported for 1850 had risen to 4489 tons, but in 1855 it fell to 598 tons. There was here also a recovery, the quantity in 1857 having been 2632 tons; but for 1859 it is reduced to 245 tons, caused partly, however, by a considerable local consumption for soap and candle

making. Hides are now an export of increasing importance, as the facilities of inland communication induce nearly all to be despatched to market, where they arrive in better order than formerly. Sheep and cattle are still occasionally exported, chiefly to Tasmania, although this branch of business has much fallen off since the advance of prices caused by the gold. The black sand, or ore of tin, found in the remote gold district of the Ovens, adds a second metallic export, but it is as yet of comparatively small amount. Large masses of antimony are also met with in this vicinity ; but the value of this article is insufficient to repay the cost of bringing it to market, and it awaits, therefore, like many other latent treasures, the future day of railway communication.

*Revenue and public debt.*—Upon nothing did the gold operate with more immediate and powerful effect than the public finances. The revenue for 1851 had been L.316,532, and towards the end of that year the legislature had sanctioned estimates for 1852, framed upon some like amount, with the addition of a modest and usual ratio of increase, which it was hoped the gold would at least not tend to diminish. But the revenue of 1852 proved to be L.1,577,181. That of 1853 was L.3,202,139, no less than a million and a half having resulted from the land sales. The land sales have since fallen off to a half or two-thirds of this amount but the customs revenues and other items have steadily advanced ; and the revenue of this young settlement, containing not half a million souls, has been maintained at about L.3,000,000 yearly. In 1857 it was L.3,175,888, and in 1859 L.3,257,724. These sums are exclusive of loans, with whose tempting facilities the colony is already getting fa-

miliar. After the first surprise of the government at the overflowing treasuries of 1852-53, the art of spending became so easy that during the following year the colony was already in debt. It is true that at this inflated time money went but a small way as compared with its former power, and the colony clamoured for public works and improvements to meet its expanding society and commerce. The legislature interposed a severe but effectual check on this extravagance, which was the more necessary, as a reactionary crisis had already set in which was diminishing the income, while the government were immensely increasing the expenditure. Prior to the era of self-government in 1856 there had been contracted a debt of about L.2,000,000, chiefly for the construction of water-works for Melbourne, costing altogether above L.900,000, and of aids for improvements of L.500,000 to Melbourne, and L.200,000 for Geelong. But subsequently to that period, a loan of L.8,000,000 was sanctioned for the construction of railways. Of this large amount, L.7,000,000 were to be raised in London, and already (1861) L.4,400,000 of the stock has been disposed of in that great monetary capital. The railway constructions proceed vigorously; and the colonial debt is now rather over L.6,000,000. The revenues are derived chiefly from custom duties, which include an export duty of 2s. 6d. per ounce on gold, and from the sale of the public lands. For 1858 the former amounted to L.1,650,917, and the latter to L.699,846.

*General progress.*—The first inflations of the gold discoveries have passed away, and given place to steady industry and extensive and substantial progress. Melbourne,

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the colonial capital, as a creation of the last twenty-four years. is perhaps the most surprising object of its kind that has ever exhibited the marvels of human industry. The city and immediate suburbs, containing about 125,000 inhabitants, have an outward aspect of traffic and extent of commerce far beyond the usual proportions in other countries of even so considerable a place. Its streets and houses are lighted with gas, and both are plentifully supplied with fresh water. Three railways issue from its busy centre, besides long lines of good macadamized roads, one of which penetrates by way of Mount Alexander to the famous Bendigo, now the site of the large corporate town of Sandhurst. This road is above 100 miles in length, and has been constructed for the most part at the enormous cost of from L.2000 to L.6000 per mile. There are spacious theatres, hospitals, benevolent asylums, an university of the most ambitious dimensions, a public library (which, still unfinished, has already cost L.20,000, with L.7500 for the purchased portion of its library); and lastly, a Parliament-house, which takes position in the empire next to the magnificent palace of legislation erected at Westminster. Telegraphic communication is already complete throughout the south-eastern colonies, and across the intervening strait to Tasmania; and steamboats or other traders ply almost daily between the various seaports of the Australian group.

The fame of her gold treasures brought a severe trial to Victorian society. The adjacent penal settlement of Van Diemen's Land, for several years at first, resembled an open gaol, whence a resistless stream of the most depraved criminals spread themselves over the gold fields and highways, committing everywhere the boldest and most atrocious

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crimes. Intensity of feeling produced strong remedies, and the "Convicts Prevention Act," promptly passed by the legislature, alike required the Tasmanian immigrants to prove themselves non-convict, and also excluded those "conditionally-pardoned" offenders who were excluded from the mother country. The objection of the imperial government, that this measure interfered with the Prerogative, fell with decidedly light effect upon the angry Victorians, and did not prevent the act being renewed for those short periods that are permitted by the constitution, and that have more than once saved unseemly results between the imperial mother and her colonies, when there was less of mutual forbearance and consideration than is happily the case now. These evils have gradually ceased. The police became more efficient, and crime diminished, although the population rapidly increased. The number of convictions for felony was in 1851, 152; in 1852, 368; in 1853, 499; in 1854, 308; in 1855, 137; in 1856, 237; in 1857, 374; in 1858, 535; in 1859, 582. The year 1855, and the greater part of 1856, were times of commercial depression; a circumstance that suggests that these alternations of a generally thriving colony produce that marked diminution of crime that is usually the result of the opposite or prosperous seasons of our home country.

We shall conclude this part of our subject, by a brief glance at the history, political and general, of the colony.

Victoria had formed the southern district of the colony of New South Wales until the year 1851, when it was erected into a separate colony under a lieutenant-governor, the governor-general for Australasia occupying the senior colony of the group, New South Wales, from which Vic-



tion had been detached. The country, prior to this separation, bore, as already mentioned, the name also of the Port Phillip district, and sometimes Australia Felix. Only three counties had been at first marked off in the young settlement,—namely, Bourke, Grant, and Normanby. These respectively encircled the spots selected by the early colonists, and these spots have since become the chief seaport towns of the colony, Melbourne being the capital of Bourke, Geelong of Grant, and Portland of Normanby. After the passing of an act of Parliament, and certain Orders in Council founded upon it in 1847, a further creation of twenty-one counties followed in the succeeding year. There are now therefore twenty-four counties, which have broken up the several large squatting districts into which the country had been previously distributed. Gipps' Land comprises seven counties,—viz., Howe, Combermere, Abinger, Bruce, Haddington, Douro, Bass; the central region has eight,—Mornington, Evelyn, Anglesea, Bourke, Grant, Talbot, Dalhousie, Rodney; the remaining nine are in the western district,—viz., Follett, Dundas, Normanby, Villiers, Heytesbury, Hampton, Ripon, Grenville, and Polwarth. The rest of the colony is comprised in three pastoral districts,—viz., the Wimmera, the Loddon, and the Murray.

Mr Latrobe, who had arrived in 1839, and had acted as "Superintendent" under the New South Wales government, was appointed the first lieutenant-governor, and remained till May 1854. Although personally of highly respectable character, and of considerable literary attainments, Mr Latrobe did not earn popularity. His administration received special animadversion from the colonists during the crisis of hurry and confusion that followed the gold dis-

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covery, a state of things, indeed, that demanded such energy and decision as most men do not possess. His government escaped, by a very narrow majority, a vote of "want of confidence" (whatever that might have led to in these pre-constitutional days), which the impatient legislature of the time attempted to pass, in spite of the still existing precautionary drag of one third of its members being Crown nominees, to say nothing of nearly an equal number being squatting Crown tenants. The colony was behindhand to receive all the crowd of population that now poured into it, and afford to the new comers facilities for acquiring a permanent settlement. There was a boundless area of available land, and a numberless crowd clamorous to purchase its sections; but such noble opportunities were to a great extent lost by official delay and indecision. The great difficulty of the government was to decide upon certain "Orders in Council" of 1847 respecting squatting, which Orders, according to the squatters' interpretation, leased to that body, at all but nominal rentals, nearly the entire colony for exclusively pastoral purposes, and to the exclusion, except in certain contingencies, of even the land-purchasing public. The doubtful sense of the Orders themselves (drawn up in times, now happily past, when the imperial government persisted in regulating matters they were practically ignorant of), and the predominating influence of the squatting body, who of course fought for everything they could get, resulted injuriously to the colony in preventing a very extensive settlement of the waste lands. It was the case of the dog in the manger over again, and many thousands of disappointed immigrants left the colony, owing to inadequate opportunities of acquiring land. The decision on the "Orders," which ought to

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have been made in the colony, was injuriously delayed by a reference to the Home Office. The home verdict was wholly opposed to the squatters. But this body, still powerful, and in actual possession, remained an actual, if it ceased to be a legal obstruction in the way of more liberal dealing with the lands. Upon this vexatious scene comes, two or three years afterwards, the era of self-government, and with it the annihilation of the old regime and the squatting dominancy. We need not be surprised that a "Land Bill" is one of the earliest measures of the new powers, and that the new-born Assembly, somewhat out of temper on the subject, exhibits every discordancy of view. Agreeing only in a strong reactionary antipathy to the squatting privileges, they are not unlikely to injure an enterprising body of colonists, and to under-estimate a colonial vocation of primary importance. This may perhaps be, to some extent at least, the result of the land bill that was at length passed in 1860, with its powers of reservations for farmers as well as township commons, along with increased rentals and assessments. But, on the other hand, the position of the colony certainly required a great and immediate change, both as to the squatting relations, and as to increased facilities in the land system.

To return, however, to the thread of our narrative, Sir Charles Hotham, who succeeded Mr Latrobe, arrived in the month of June 1854, but died on 31st December of the year succeeding, in consequence, to some extent, of mental anxiety connected with the condition of the colony, social and financial, and the impending change to self-government. Sir Charles was a distinguished naval officer, and his qualities, more adapted for that position than for the administration

of a free colony, were but scantily appreciated. He was, in fact, not "the right man in the right place." The financial troubles have been alluded to. Those of a social character were serious, although happily temporary, and culminated in the outbreak at Ballarat in December 1854. This unusual spectacle in British society had several causes. The rough and irritating task of levying monthly a direct personal tax of considerable amount was conjoined with a diminishing yield of gold to the miner; while a vexatious and suicidal parsimony of the government with the public lands, and a want of recognised political standing in the mining body, prevented that settled order and contentment which should rather have been a matter urgently promoted than otherwise towards the miners. A commission of inquiry, appointed by the governor, met the mining population in a cordial spirit; and the government having carried out the various recommendations, the gold-fields have since presented no exceptional character as compared with the rest of the colony. Major-General M'Arthur, commander of the forces, assumed the acting governorship for twelve months, until the arrival of the present governor, Sir Henry Barkly, on 23d December 1856. Sir Henry's administration seems to have given much more general satisfaction than that of Sir C. Hotham or Mr Latrobe. Under the present "constitutional" system, however, a governor can generally keep aloof from the storm of local politics ever raging beneath him, and on many occasions can acquire much useful influence by a quiet and judicious procedure.

The acting governor inaugurated the first legislature of the free government. The colony had previously enjoyed the intermediate step in the customary progress,—namely,

that of a legislature consisting of two-thirds representative, and one-third nominee, with a governor and executive responsible only to the crown. Now, however, the system was parliamentary. The colony and its old legislature, in drafting out in 1854 its new constitution, which was to receive the imperial sanction, had decided, in common with the other colonies in like circumstances, upon two houses of legislation. Both were elective, but the Council or Upper House was placed on a narrow foundation of a very high qualification: L.5000 of real estate, or L.500 a year for a member, and L.1000, or L.100 a year, for a voter, shows what princely ideas prevailed during these golden times of 1854. This body, consisting of thirty members, cannot be dissolved, but one-fifth of its number retires every two years. The Assembly, sixty in number, is of three years' duration. Both bodies, in conjunction with the colonial public, have been latterly most active in shaping out the political future. The new constitution had been framed during times of hurry and gold excitement, and by a legislature composed partly of nominees, and otherwise meagre in its popular relations by the undue proportion of the squatting or crown-tenant element with which the old regime had instinctively fortified itself. It was therefore no sooner at work than it began to be attacked. The principle of the ballot had already been adopted by the old legislature; the new one added the manhood suffrage and the abolition of property qualification for the Assembly, and increased that body to seventy-two members, with an electoral distribution based chiefly on population.

*Religion.*—The religious system is that of the perfect

equality of all sects and citizens before the law, excepting as regards a state aid of L.50,000 annually, secured by the Constitution Act, and distributable amongst the various Christian sects. This system has been abolished in South Australia, but continues in New South Wales and Victoria. It is, however, incessantly a bone of contention; now, by the limitation and inequality, as to civil rights, implied by the words "Christian sects" in the act; and again, by the anti-state aid views of certain sects, and perhaps of colonial opinion generally, when drawn out by repeated discussion. By a considerable majority, the new Assembly condemned the system; but a small majority of two in the Council still maintains the contention for a farther season. The census of 1857 gave the religious condition as follows, in a total population of 410,766:—Church of England, 175,418, including 15,520 subscribing as "Protestants," and 221 as "Free Church;" Presbyterians, 65,935; Wesleyan Methodists, 20,395; other Protestants, 27,521, including 10,858 Independents, 6484 Baptists, 6574 Lutherans, 1480 Unitarians; Roman Catholics, 77,351; Jews, 2208; Mohammedans and pagans, 27,254; residue, 6774.

*Education.*—The state assistance continues to be bestowed on the two rival systems, the denominational and the national, of which the former, the longer established of the two, is by far the most prevalent. In 1857 the denominational schools numbered 399, and the pupils 24,973; while the national schools were 101, and the pupils 6113. The considerable grant of L.125,000 for that year was distributed in these proportions. The private schools numbered 138, with 3437 pupils. There are thus 638 schools, or 1 in 600 of the

population; while the 34,523 scholars are 1 in each 11. The number of persons who could read and write in 1857 was 249,386, or upwards of 60 per cent. By a provision of the Constitution Act no person attaining to twenty-one years after November of that year, and being unable to read and write, is entitled to the franchise.

*Present political condition.*—Victoria, in common with the sister colonies, may still be regarded as in the act of re-adjusting the social and political state consequent upon the late introduction of self-government. They are, as it were, descending from the stilts of the old regime, and great interest must naturally attach to the question of the position into which, collectively or separately, they at length subside. Although it would be premature to pronounce positively and completely on this subject, yet something may be said of those features already assumed, which, as being to all appearance common to the Australian colonial picture, may the more certainly be regarded as normal and permanent. The tendencies are decidedly, we might say irresistibly, to those democratic equalities that in older countries are checked by the actually existing and old hereditary form of an opposite social fabric. The fact that every one has emigrated to better his condition by some kind of labour has a levelling influence upon class prestige, and this effect is strengthened by the independent position, and, in general, the ample wages of the labouring classes. In short, equality is alike the public opinion and the actual fact.

The surpassing importance of Victoria, which contains about half the total colonial population of these settlements,

and whose capital seaport of Melbourne represents more commerce than all the others put together, has naturally given to it the lead in the political movement. So early as 1855 a principle tantamount to general or manhood suffrage was introduced successfully in this colony with reference to the peculiar case of the mining population, and was soon afterwards extended to the entire territory. South Australia and New South Wales have since followed this step. In the question of religion, the tendencies are unmistakably\* towards entire separation from the state, which, administered as it may be by an executive of all variety of persuasions, cannot in any individual or sectarian sense be religious. The present state aid to religion, representing the only state tie, was introduced prior to representative government in these colonies. It has been already abolished in South Australia, and it seems to survive in the other colonies only by means of some protracted electoral inequalities of the past regime. The question with the colonists becomes one of civil rights, and the public feeling decidedly tends towards a perfect liberty and equality, religious as well as civil. In these circumstances, colonial orders of nobility, or colonial religious establishments, giving to particular classes or sects any status or privileges beyond what the rest of society enjoys, would probably be found, as far as may now be judged, not only an unpopular but an impossible intervention.

These colonies have grasped the reins of their own self-government with an ardour that is truly the most gratifying response they could make to that imperial confidence which entrusted them with so grave a responsibility. Their parliaments, unpaid as they still are in these countries of



"working-men," sit for most of the day, and very often also for most of the night, over the public interests. The first assembly of Victoria's free government sat, with very slight exceptions, throughout a whole year; and the writer recalls the circumstance, that one of the debates, upon the important subject of the public land regulations, continued uninterruptedly for twenty hours, having commenced at noon and lasted till eight next morning. Earnest and energetic business has thus succeeded to the semi-amateur legislation of the past. The ranks of government are open to the ambition of persons from every class; and political and even social position are much less exclusively the result of polished education or accredited connections than of personal merits or usefulness. With this practical energy and adaptation to its own case, the colonial picture wants the refinement characteristic of an old society. There has also been, as yet, a want of political stability and of definiteness of political aim; but probably this fault is temporary, and connected with the transition from irresponsible government to the utmost opposite extreme, with all its undoing of previous arrangements. There is a constant fracturing of the upper crust in order to elevate to its attractive stage successive masses of the competing crowd beneath. The new political views disqualify the politicians of the former regime; and the public administration will probably for some time be marked by those incessant "changes of Ministry" that seem alike the weakness and the safety of "Constitutionalism" in its application to these colonies.

## III. SOUTH AUSTRALIA.

South Australia. When Captain Sturt discovered and explored the Murray River in 1830, and traced its course down to its embouchure into Lake Alexandrina,—now called Victoria,—he was of opinion that to the westward of that river, towards Gulf St Vincent, a rich and fertile land existed, and that probably the lake disembogued into the gulf. His men at the time had suffered so much from fatigue and privation, that it would have endangered the safety of the party if he had attempted to prosecute his researches further than ascertaining generally the extent of the lake. On his return to Sydney, however, he represented the matter so strongly to Governor Darling, that he sent instructions to Captain Barker, commandant at King George's Sound,—who was under orders for New South Wales,—to land at Cape Jervis, and explore the eastern shore of the gulf, and ascertain the outlet of the lake. Unfortunately, that gallant officer, just as he had completed his task, was inhumanly murdered by the aborigines at Encounter Bay, while in the performance of a perilous portion of his duty. Mr John Kent, of the Commissariat department, who accompanied Captain Barker during the expedition, has recorded the particulars of this first exploration of the Adelaide country. The party, consisting of seven persons, landed on the eastern shore of the gulf, and proceeded inland in a north-easterly direction, ascending a range of mountains, of which Mount Lofty formed the highest peak; from whence they could overlook the gulf to the westward as far as York peninsula. To the northward this range trended in an unbroken line, which settled the point that the lake had not an outlet

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in that direction: they descended accordingly, and traversed the country through some fertile valleys and rich lands on Sturt's Creek, until they reached Encounter Bay, where the lake disembogued itself into the sea through an insignificant channel between hummocks of sand. Here Captain Barker gallantly stripped and swam across the channel, with a compass to ascertain its position. Mr Kent, in his MS. narrative, describes the circumstance in these words: "Curiosity prompted me to time his crossing. The current was running out strong; but he accomplished the feat, at 9.58 A.M., in three minutes. On arriving at the opposite shore, he ascended the sandhill, gazed around for a few moments, and disappeared." He was never seen afterwards. It was, however, subsequently ascertained that three aborigines had speared him, as he rushed into the water to escape from them: his body was carried away by the tide. Mr Kent, on his arrival in Sydney, gave a favourable report to Captain Sturt of the country explored, coinciding with that gentleman's own impressions. This partial exploration was described by Captain Sturt in his account of his discovery of the Murray River, in which he pointed this out as a desirable locality for the establishment of a new colony. Here accordingly the Colonization Commissioners of South Australia fixed the site of the future province.

The boundaries of South Australia, according to the statutes of 4th and 5th Will. IV., cap. 95, are fixed between 132° and 141° E. Long. for the eastern and western boundaries; the parallel of 26° S. Lat. or the northern limit; and the southern boundary defined by the sea-coast, including Kangaroo Island.

This colony was occupied as a British province on the

27th December 1836, by Captain Hindmarsh, R.N., who was appointed the first governor of South Australia. The powers with which he was delegated, and the constitution of his government, were very different from those possessed by the early governors of the older colonies in Australia. With Mr Edward Gibbon Wakefield originated the new scheme of colonization. He held that, by placing a high value on the unreclaimed lands of a new country, and forwarding a labouring population out of the sale of those lands, the emigrants would of necessity work at *low wages*, as the purchase of the *dear lands* would be above their means; thereby securing to the capitalist investing in the land a large interest for his money, and forming at once a community of labourers and artizans, who would minister to the benefit of the landholders. But, besides these large landholders, a class of small farmers were to be induced to emigrate, by disposing of the land in small sections to be cleared and cultivated by their families. The result was the formation of a company called the "South Australian Colonization Association," and in 1835 they obtained a grant from government of the immense tract of land we have already described. The conditions were, that the land should not be sold at less than L.1 per acre; that the revenue arising from the sale of such lands should be appropriated to the emigration of able-bodied labourers to till the soil; that the control of the company's affairs should be vested in a body of commissioners approved of by the Colonial Office; and that the governor of the province should be nominated by the Crown.

Under these auspices, Governor Hindmarsh landed on the swampy shores of Holdfast Bay in December 1836, and with difficulty found his way to the contemplated site of the

proposed city of Adelaide. The distance from the intended port being seven miles, he was at once impressed with the error of the commissioners' agents in fixing upon such an ineligible spot for a seaport town—a fault common, however, to new settlements in these distant colonies. His arguments upon this and other points with the local officers of the company led to an unseemly discussion; so that after two years' administration of affairs he was recalled, and left the colony in 1838.

Meanwhile the emigrants, consisting mostly of “surveyors, architects, engineers, clerks, teachers, lawyers, and clergymen,” with traders and adventurers of every description, were landed in thousands upon the mangrove swamps around the anchorage of the future Port Adelaide. Then commenced a system of land-jobbing which can only find a parallel amongst the gambling transactions during the great railway mania in England. The land-orders issued by the commissioners were negotiated like railway-scrip; town allotments which were originally set up to auction at L.2, 10s. per acre, soon reached the apparent value of L.2000 and L.3000; while country sections, obtained at the upset price of L.1 per acre, realized as much as L.100 per acre. Those who had secured special surveys of 16,000 acres upon payment of L.4200 for that number of acres selected from the whole, sold allotments in imaginary townships at enormous prices. To this land mania were added building speculations on an equally extravagant scale; and the wages of ordinary labourers increased to 15s. and L.1 per day. These facts, set forth in the most attractive light, were extensively circulated throughout England and Scotland, till the emigration fever rose to a pitch hitherto unprecedented.

Colonel Gawler was appointed to succeed Captain Hindmarsh in 1838; and he arrived in the colony on the 13th October of that year. The apparent success of the land and building speculations deceived the new governor into a prodigality of expenditure during his administration, for which he has been unjustly condemned. It was, in fact, not more than equivalent to the apparent revenue of the country, but was found, however, at the close of three years, to exceed that income by L.400,000. Like the majority of the colonists, he imagined that all this interchange of *paper* gave *value to the land*; and as there was plenty of it belonging to the commissioners, there was little fear of the territorial revenue decreasing. As to ordinary revenue, there was an increasing amount from the customs alone, which promised to meet all demands in time. But in 1839 the reaction took place, followed by a universal bankruptcy amongst the landholders, and the ruin of most of the small monied settlers. As the colony was established at its commencement upon an insecure foundation, it was no wonder that the inexperienced settlers, induced to build up the superstructure, should have failed in the attempt; for they were mostly townspeople, who knew little or nothing about growing sufficient food for themselves. Hence their means were all expended on purchases from the neighbouring colonies. After three years' occupation of the country,—while they had been buying and selling land by the thousand acres, and building towns and villages throughout the country,—there were not 1800 acres of land under cultivation; and that mainly consisted of vegetable and flower gardens, in the vicinity of their mushroom city. The healthy progress of the colony for the next five years is honourable to the industry and perseverance

of the people of South Australia; and the flourishing condition of the colony in 1845, compared with 1840, as laid before a parliamentary committee in 1847 by Mr T. F. Elliott, is a bright spot in its history.

	1840.	1845.
Total population.....	14,610	22,390
In town .....	8,489	7,413
In the country.....	6,121	14,977
Number of public-houses	107	85
Convictions of crime .....	47	22
Acres in cultivation .....	2,503	26,218
Exports of colonial produce	L.15,650	L.131,800
Revenue.....	30,199	32,099
Expenditure.....	169,966	36,182

Meanwhile Governor Gawler was recalled in 1841, and succeeded by Captain Grey (now Sir George Grey, Governor-general of New Zealand), who had some previous knowledge of the colonial affairs from a residence in Western Australia, and who had visited the notorious model colony on the way home. By a course of strict retrenchment he reduced the expenditure in two years from L.104,471 to L.29,842. Added to this also was the discovery of copper in 1842, which increased the value of exports. The great yield of the Burra Burra copper mine did not occur, however, until after the above statistics were taken. This new article of export gave a fresh impetus to the trade and commerce of the port, which was by this time shifted a mile lower down the creek, while a good road was constructed between it and the capital. The history of copper-mining in Australia,—as represented by the Burra Burra mines,—like every other discovery and

produce in this wonderful land, eclipses all that has been recorded of such workings in the Old World. It was not mining in the ordinary sense; it was quarrying. The leviathan mass of oxidated and carbonated copper ore lay on the surface in a kind of hollow, where it was connected with a vein afterwards worked in the rock below. Success attended the efforts of the colonists in every direction, as this new source of wealth distributed its benefits to all around. The fortunate discoverers and early shareholders realized fortunes; and one proprietor, who bought 100 shares at L.5 each, was in the receipt of L.11,000 per annum three years after it had been worked. Miners were brought direct from Cornwall; and every description of machinery was used to excavate the ore. Coal not being found in the colony, smelting operations were but slowly proceeded with. Many cargoes, however, were shipped to Sydney to undergo this process. Altogether, the province of South Australia stood in as fair a position to rival its neighbour Port Phillip in the beginning of 1851, with the large export of its copper, and the probable yield of lead, silver, iron, and other valuable metals ascertained to exist in its mountain ranges at that date, as the most sanguine colonists could wish. That year, however, brought about a second period of depression in its short history, which threatened to annihilate its commerce.

The gold discovery, which was the precursor of unexampled prosperity to New South Wales and Victoria, proved deeply injurious to South Australia. The very fact of her population having become more a mining than an agricultural or a pastoral people militated against her. In twelve months after the discovery of gold in the Bathurst Moun-



time, it has been calculated that, out of a population of 70,000, 12,000 adults and 4000 children, almost entirely of the male sex, left that colony. The city of Adelaide was left nearly destitute of able-bodied men, the mines were deserted, the stations abandoned, and almost every industrial occupation was at a standstill; while the government of the colony was for a time paralyzed. It was but for a time; for the legislative council—recently elected by the colonists—and the governor, Sir H. E. F. Young (Sir George Grey having gone to New Zealand), passed an act making ingots of gold, stamped by authority, a legal tender throughout the colony. This, added to the successful attempt of Mr Tolmer in forming a practicable route from Adelaide to Mount Alexander, brought a large portion of the gold from the colony of Victoria, and some from New South Wales, into the coffers of the South Australian merchants and the treasury. Those also who had left their families behind—which four-fifths had done—sent their earnings by this overland escort. With all their undoubted and praiseworthy energy, the South Australian colonists have not been successful in discovering a profitable gold field of any extent within their territory. The Echunga diggings, which promised much at first, have been almost abandoned. Many who had been unsuccessful at the gold fields, or who preferred working for the baser metal, returned to the colony where they had more comfortable homes. The Kapunda, Burra, and other mines, which had ceased working for more than twelve months, were again put into operation; and the shares of the latter, which had fallen from L.270 to L.60, were quoted in March 1853 at L.134½. Land had risen in value.

**Agricultural operations were likewise progressing satisfactorily, and high prices obtained.**

The settled lands of this partially explored colony were divided at an early date into nine counties—namely, Adelaide, Hindmarsh, Gawler, Light, Sturt, Eyre, Stanley, Flinders, Russell. In August 1851, two new counties were added—Robe and Grey. The territory is also divided into hundreds, each averaging about 100 square miles. The capital of the province is the “City of Adelaide,” which is laid out upon nine square miles of land, and contains a population, according to the census of 1860, of 17,933. Port Adelaide, the shipping port, seven miles distant, is connected by railway. The electric telegraph is also generally distributed, and connects the colony with Victoria and New South Wales. Within the environs of this town are scattered a number of villages; including Klemzig, a village composed entirely of German immigrants. Twenty-five miles over the Mount Lofty range, there is a larger hamlet of the same people called Hahndorf.

If we speak of the general aspect of South Australia as contained within the limits of its available country, it comes under the general description of the Victoria territory and New South Wales; the greater proportion, however, being what is locally termed a “broken country” more allied to the east-coast ranges of the latter than the extensive undulating open forest lands of the former. The Mount Lofty range, at the same time, is not more than ten or twelve miles distant from the eastern shore of Gulf St Vincent; whereas the ranges in New South Wales are seldom less than 80 miles distant from the coast. The shed of waters, likewise, which flows from the hills through the narrow flat where the town of Adelaide stands, consists of a few insignificant streams; and although they have mostly been denominated “rivers” by the company’s surveyors, there is not one deserving more than the ordinary appellation of “creek.” The only navigable stream amongst them is an inlet, through a mangrove swamp from the gulf. On the eastern shed of the Mount Lofty range lies the great lake Victoria, and its equally gigantic feeder the Murray, which we have described elsewhere. The two peninsulas which form Spencer’s Gulf are at the best indifferent forest land, with small

particles of alluvial soil, the great mass being barren and worthless. The settlement at Port Lincoln has been abandoned on account of the poverty of the country.

On the alluvial slopes of the Mount Lofty range there is some of the finest agricultural land in Australia. The common average of wheat grown there is 45 bushels to the acre. So abundant was the yield in 1845, that after exporting about 195,000 bushels, chiefly to the Mauritius and England, the farmers had upwards of 150,000 bushels on hand over and above what was required for home consumption. And it is a fact significant of the progress of the colony and the energy of the settlers, that, while in 1840 they were dependent almost solely upon foreign supplies of flour and grain, having only 2503 acres under cultivation, it increased in 1841 to 6722 acres; and in 1843 to 28,690, of which nearly 23,000 acres were in wheat crop. In the year ending April 1850 there were 64,728½ acres under cultivation; of which 41,807 were in wheat crop; potatoes, 1780; gardens, 1370; vineyards, 282; and 13,000 acres in hay. For the year 1859-60 there were 361,885 acres under crop; of which area 218,216 acres were under wheat.

The climate at Adelaide and its environs is about the same average temperature as Sydney; although the latter city is more than 1° in lat. N. of it. From its situation, likewise, on a sand flat, very little elevated above the waters of the gulf, and its distance from the cool sea-breezes on the S. shore of Kangaroo Island, the atmosphere is in general more oppressive than the open country around Port Jackson. At the same time, South Australia enjoys the salubrity of climate generally maintained throughout the temperate regions of Australia from Cape Leeuwin to Cape Howe; and it has also its share of the Austral simoom. According to the observations of Mr Wyatt, communicated to the government by the colonial surgeon, James George Nash, "the thermometer in summer averages 73° Fahr., and in winter 55° Fahr., showing a mean temperature for the year of 65° Fahr., being only 1° higher than the mean temperature of Madeira." "There is no endemic disease in South Australia. Bilious, remittent, and intermittent fevers are scarcely known. The prevalent fever is closely allied to the congestive fever of Bengal, and chiefly affects persons newly arrived. Eight-ninths of those cases that terminate fatally occur in persons who have not been one year in the colony. Organic

disease of the liver is rare. Dysentery is one of the prevalent diseases, but yields readily to treatment."\*

In 1840 the population was 14,610; in 1850, 63,900; and, in 1860, 122,692, of whom 62,296 were males and 60,396 females. In 1860 the births of the year, as registered, numbered 5,568. The number of deaths during the year was 2,336, or a fraction less than 2 per cent. of the population, as ascertained by the census. Considerably more than half the number of deaths consist of infants under two years of age. In point of fact, 43½ per cent. of the deaths were those of infants less than a year old. The following is an epitomised statement of the mortality during the year 1860:—Zymotic diseases, 677; diseases of uncertain or variable seat, 213; tubercular diseases, 178; diseases of the nervous system, 302; diseases of the digestive organs, 259; diseases of the urinary organs, 20; diseases of the organs of generation, 27; diseases of the organs of locomotion, 12; diseases of the organs of integumentary system, 1; malformations, 9; debility, 159; atrophy, 106; age, 12; sudden deaths, 10; violent causes, 97; unstated, 11—total, 2,336. The rate of mortality is greatly higher in the summer than in the winter months.

Before the promulgation of the recent act, granting to all the Australian colonies a free constitutional government, the administration of affairs was vested in the Governor, assisted by an Executive Council, composed of the colonial secretary, the advocate-general, the surveyor-general, and the assistant-commissioner; to these were added four crown nominees. Under the new order of things the elective principle has been introduced. There are now two chambers—viz., a House of Assembly, composed of thirty-six members, and a Legislative Council, composed of eighteen members. The executive is vested in a governor, whose council consists of the heads of departments, having ministerial responsibility. The House of Assembly is elected for three years. The vote is taken by ballot, and there is no property qualification for the franchise.

In this colony there is no dominant church recognised by the state, nor does the government contribute anything towards the support of religion. From 1847 to 1861, there *did* exist an act of the legislature, empowering the governor to grant a sum out of the

\* *Thirteenth General Report of the Colonial, Land, and Emigration Commissioners*, p. 141.

public funds (not less than L.50 nor more than L.150), to any religious body collecting an equal amount by voluntary contributions; but the general voice of the colonists was opposed to the measure, and it was repealed. Judging from the rapidly increasing number of churches and congregations throughout the province, it does not appear that the cause of religion has suffered from this attempt to commit its sustentation entirely to the voluntary principle, and it is supposed that the example of South Australia will shortly be followed by the neighbouring colonies. Government aid continues to be extended to schools through the instrumentality of an Education Board. The number of schools connected with this board, in 1860, was 210. The total number of scholars was 9,893, and the sum expended for stipends was L.12,453, which gives an average of nearly L.60 to each teacher.

The total revenue of the colony for the year 1860 was L.447,213; the expenditure, L.494,341. A comparison of the revenue and expenditure for the years 1840, 1850, and 1860, will show the gratifying progress which the finances of the colony have made:—

	1840.	1850.	1860.
Revenue.....	L.30,199	L.263,150	L.447,213
Expenditure.....	169,966	213,470	494,340

The following is a statement of the imports and exports of the twelve months ending on the 30th September 1860:—

Imports.	Exports.	Imports re-exported.
L.1,630,124	L.1,570,020	L.181,524

Of the above exports, the following consisted of cereals:—

	Values.
Wheat, 28,728 quarters .....	L.82,388 13 8
Flour, 16,034 tons.....	289,178 10 0
Barley, 315 quarters .....	639 2 0
Bran of Pollard, 2719 tons .....	19,486 19 2
Oats, 259 quarters.....	404 14 4

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Total value..... L.392,097 19 2

These figures show the great importance of agriculture to the general prosperity of the colony, the total amount being equivalent to about L.3. 6s. per head of the entire population. The remaining exports consist in about equal parts of minerals and wool.

The commerce and currency of South Australia have undergone various fluctuations during its brief history; but exhibit, on the whole, a remarkable progression. In 1841 the exports only amounted to £53,500; whilst in 1860 they exceeded a million and a half sterling. The banking returns exhibit signs of tolerably easy finance, as the following analysis will show:—

	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.
Circulation .....	£219,000	£208,000	£234,000	£236,000
Deposits .....	753,000	655,000	719,000	662,000
Total liabilities.	1,001,000	917,000	1,002,000	993,000
Coin .....	345,000	316,000	329,000	253,000
Debts to banks..	1,010,000	1,224,000	1,200,000	1,285,000
Total assets .....	1,440,000	1,579,000	1,577,000	1,588,000

Two lines of railway have already been constructed in the colony—one, the Port Line, connecting Adelaide with the seaport; the other, the Northern Line, which has been extended as far as Kapunda, a distance of 50 miles from the metropolis. These railways have been constructed by the government. The passenger and goods receipts amounted, in 1860, to £16,913, 3s. 8d. for the Port Line, and £38,842, 13s. 7d. for the line to the north. The subjoined table exhibits the number of passengers, and the quantities of goods expressed in tons, conveyed over each line during the years 1858, 1859, and 1860:—

YEAR.	PORT LINE.		NORTHERN LINE.	
	Passengers.	Goods.	Passengers.	Goods.
1858.....	294,827	Tons, 88,735	81,456	Tons, 47,609
1859.....	247,962	93,215	72,376	57,845
1860.....	237,960	87,754	63,903	53,901

This colony has always been famous for its copper mines, which have proved one of the main sources of its prosperity. In addition to the Burra Burra and the Kapunda, which have attained celebrity for their richness and productiveness, and the numerous smaller mines which only require the application of capital, skill, and labour to be worked with advantage, vast deposits of copper have

recently been discovered at a place called Wallaroo, on the shores of Spencer's Gulf. Already a large quantity of ore has been raised from numerous sinkings, and the proximity of the mines to the sea will obviate the immense outlay requisite for cartage of ores from the mines in the northern parts of the province. The government are about to sell the townships at Wallaroo, and there is every prospect of a large population being speedily concentrated in the vicinity.

The alienation of the public lands is effected by periodical auction sales, at the uniform upset price of L.1 sterling per acre. The following table exhibits the quantity of land sold in the years 1857-60, as also the amount realised each year, and the average price per acre:—

Year.	Acres.	Amount.	Average per Acre.		
			L.	s.	d.
1857.....	177,601	212,365	1	3	10½
1858.....	158,016	197,821	1	5	0½
1859.....	188,065	211,575	1	2	6
1860.....	129,740	151,885	1	4	5

The total quantity of land sold since the commencement of the colony till the close of 1860 was 2,033,761 acres; and the total amount realised for it was L.2,606,605, or about L.1, 6s. per acre.

#### IV. WEST AUSTRALIA.

West Australia.—A line drawn due N. and S. upon the maps of Australia from the middle of the Great Bight on the S. coast to the head of Cambridge Gulf on the N. coast, along the meridian of 129° E. Long., forms the eastern boundary of this colony; the coast line to the westward forming its N., W., and S. boundaries. Its extreme S. is West Cape Howe, in 35. 10., and its extreme N. Cape Londonderry, in 13. 45., both headlands being in S. Lat. Thus, the great length of West Australia is 1457 British miles, by an average width of 700 miles, giving an ap-

proximate area of 1,019,900 square miles. One-half may be considered within the influence of tropical meteorology, the other half within the temperate zone. This territory includes the earliest discovered portions of Australia.

In August 1829 Captain Stirling, who had previously explored the coast, arrived at the proposed site of the new settlement on the Swan River, to which he was appointed lieutenant-governor. He found that several ships had arrived from Britain in the previous months of June and July, with numbers of anxious settlers; who, at the very outset, were discouraged by the appearance of the land on the banks of the Swan and Canning Rivers, besides encountering the inclemency of the weather (for it was winter in Australia) without any other shelter than the tents they had brought with them. By the end of the year there were 1290 persons in the colony, including non-residents; and others were gradually flocking in without any previous preparation having been made for the accommodation of their wives and families.

The governor did all he could to alleviate the hardships and disappointments of the settlers; but his own circumstances were hardly better than those of the rest, both he and his officials having undertaken their duties on the stipulation of payment in land. Instead of a thousand or fifteen hundred pounds a-year, he was to obtain a grant of 100,000 acres of land, and his subordinates 20,000 acres, down to 2000 and 3000 acres in proportion. In like manner, if a settler brought wealth, in the shape of agricultural implements, live stock, or labourers, he was to receive an equivalent for the benefit he thereby bestowed on the colony, by grant of land.



The land they had expected to be surveyed, and the towns they had expected to be built, were nowhere to be found. Upwards of fifty ships had arrived by March 1830, and nearly 2000 immigrants, with property to the amount of L.100,000, while scarcely twenty houses had been erected for their accommodation. At last a township was marked out on the Swan River, called Perth, and some degree of order began to appear out of the chaos by the close of the year, as the governor took up his quarters at this future capital; not, however, before many of the most energetic emigrants had either left for the neighbouring colonies, or returned home to warn their fellow-countrymen from proceeding to this Utopian colony.

For twenty years after the disembarkation of the first colonists, the Swan River settlement has struggled through a feeble existence. Governor Stirling was succeeded by Governor Hutt, who tried manfully to restore confidence to the colonists, and induce new settlers to come out. He in turn was succeeded by Governor Fitzgerald, the present ruler. In vain have they attempted, with the assistance of the colonists, to raise the colony on a par with her sister provinces in South-eastern Australia and Van Diemen's Land. So late as the year 1848, things had reached such a state of general depression, that the inhabitants had taken it seriously into consideration whether it would not be advisable to abandon the settlement altogether. About this time there was a demonstration on the part of the eastern colonists—which we have noticed elsewhere—against the landing of convicts on that part of Australia. It occurred to this remote community to petition for what their more successful neighbours refused. Consequently in 1849, ex-

actly twenty years after the first settlement, a band of convicts arrived from the parent state, and at once gave new life and vigour to this languishing colony. A correspondent of the *Times* at Perth, writing in January 1853, says, "The advent of convicts, after three years' experience, has been found to contribute more to the wellbeing of the pockets of the settlers than detriment to their morals." The most satisfactory accounts have been received of the progress of the colony under these circumstances to the 8th June 1853. The inhabitants at Perth had held public meetings expressing a desire for the importation of 1000 convicts annually. In 1859, after ten years of the convict system, there had arrived 5465 British convicts. The aid of their labour, together with the expenditure from the Imperial Treasury, had promoted the material prosperity of the settlement. That the colony's share of the Imperial expenditure was no trifling amount may be inferred from the fact that the total cost incurred for these convicts during these ten years, amounted to L.987,573, or above L.180 per head!

The settlement at King George's Sound was formed much earlier than that at Swan River, in anticipation of a projected scheme of colonization by the French government. It was effected in 1826 by the government of New South Wales, who despatched a detachment of the 39th regiment under Major Lockyer for this purpose. After four years' occupation as a military post, the settlement was ordered by the home government in 1830 to be transferred to the government of Swan River, both being within the new colony of Western Australia. During the next twenty years of its existence it survived actual desertion in consequence of its excellent harbour being frequented by whaling ships, which

found abundance of whales off the coast. Since the establishment of steam communication between England and Australia, it has come into notice as the first coaling station for the steamers on their outward voyage, *via* the Cape, to South Australia, Victoria, and New South Wales; and there is every likelihood of the little township of Albany becoming a thriving seaport. "The Sound is a magnificent roadstead, with from 7 to 15 and 20 fathoms water, completely sheltered from S.W. to E., and partially by two islands to the S.E. It is only open to southerly winds, which in this locality bring fair weather. On the W. the Sound is separated by a long tongue of land, terminated at its northern extremity by Point Possession, from the Princess-Royal Harbour. The entrance to this nearly circular bay is between Point Possession and Mount Clarence; being not more than 200 yards across, with a depth of  $4\frac{1}{2}$  fathoms water. Princess-Royal Harbour is capable of containing many hundred vessels: it is the finest harbour known to exist in Australia to the W. of Spencer's Gulf. It enjoys an equable climate, the thermometer, during nineteen months' observations, ranging from  $40^{\circ}$  to  $76^{\circ}$  Fahr. Vegetables also grow luxuriantly."\*

At the outset of the colony there were fifteen counties laid out on the map, arranged in apparently compact sections of about forty miles square, along the coast from Cape Leschenault to Point Hood; namely, Twiss, Perth, Murray, Wellington, Nelson, Sussex, Lanark, York, Grantham, Wicklow, Goöerich, Stirling, Hay, Plantagenet, Kent. Subsequently eleven were added to these along the territory to the N., which was named generally Australind, and from recent explorations promises to furnish good pasture land for sheep

\* MS. Notes of Assistant Commissary-General Kent, late of King George's Sound.

and cattle. These counties are Melbourne, Glenelg, Grey, Carnarvon, Victoria, Durham, Landsdowne, Hawick, Beaufort, Minto, Peel. The principal places claiming the title of towns are Freemantle, Perth, and Guildford, on the Swan River; Kelmscott on the Canning, and Albany at Princess-Royal Harbour.

The general aspect of the forest scenery, mountains, rivers, and coasts, is the same as on the E. coast, which has been already described; with this difference, that the mountains and rivers are upon a less extensive scale. In comparison, the former seldom attain half the height and extent of range; while we have no evidence as yet of any stream approaching to the Murray in its ramifications. Much, however, remains to be explored in this quarter. "The highest mountain known is Koikeunneruf, near King George's Sound, which attains the altitude of 3500 feet. The principal range of hills extends in a northerly direction from the S. coast, near Cape Chatham, for at least 300 miles."\* This range, no doubt, is continued more or less parallel with the N.W. coast, about the same distance inland, judging by analogy, as its greater counterpart on the eastern coast; the great Austral desert between forming a barrier to any internal communication from the one coast to the other. Although the botany of these two great meridian ranges, trending in a general course N. and S. from the middle of the S. temperate zone to the middle of the Tropic of Capricorn, is generally the same, yet the majority of the plants are specifically different. Probably from the lesser heights of the mountain ranges failing to absorb the same amount of moisture as those in the higher altitudes of the Australian Alps, the vegetation of the temperate regions of West Australia is of a more arid nature than that in the S.E. latitudes. Here succulent plants are not only rarer, but the native grasses are scantier; and the extent of pasture land within the known boundaries is of a very limited description. To give some idea of this limit, we shall quote the latest returns of live stock:—

	1850.	1859.
Horses.....	2,635	8,386
Horned cattle.....	13,074	30,990
Sheep .....	128,111	234,815

This poverty of production is also apparent in the agricultural

\* Wells' *Australian Geography*. Sydney, 1848.

records of the colony. Up to 1851, the colonists were dependent upon shipments of agricultural produce from the eastern colonies. The number of acres in crop that year was 7297½, showing a decrease for the year of 121½ acres. "This is attributable to many causes, the high price of labour, and the distressed state from which the colonists were only just emerging. Many of the agriculturists, however, have now freed themselves from their great difficulties, and there is every reason to hope that a very large breadth of wheat will be laid down this year."\* There is no doubt that when the colonists obtain that cheap labour of which they are in want, much will be done to render them independent of foreign supplies of provisions. This, however, sufficiently testifies the poverty of the land, and corroborates the statement of disinterested parties, that the soil is not remarkable for that richness of loam and decayed vegetation which distinguishes the soils of Van Diemen's Land and South-eastern Australia, which yield averages of 40 and 45 bushels of wheat to the acre. At the same time there is abundance of land for all ordinary farm purposes around both settlements, on Swan River, and at King George's Sound, suitable for the growth of all esculent roots and fruits required by the colonists. There is no doubt, also, that the extreme dryness of the climate, and the devastating summer conflagrations throughout the forest lands, prevent that accumulation of mould from decayed vegetation which characterizes the virgin soils of all lands throughout the world. This arid climate, however, is even more conducive to the health of Europeans than that of the eastern colonies. Endemic or epidemic diseases are unknown, and "the country maintains its character of being perhaps the most healthy on the globe; there having been only 37 deaths recorded during 1851, in a population of 7096 souls."† This average, however, is taken after the introduction of convicts in the previous year, which augmented the white population by nearly 1000 persons. In 1850 the population was 5293, which increased to 7096 in 1851. Of these, 4523 were males, and only 2444 females, or nearly two of the male sex to one of the female. The population for 1859, including military and convicts, was 14,837, of whom 9522 were males, and 5315 females.

\* Despatch of Lieutenant-Governor Fitzgerald. *Reports of the Colonies*, 1852, p. 220.

† Despatch of Lieutenant-Governor Fitzgerald, dated April 12, 1852.

The imports during the year 1850 were L.52,351, and in 1851 L.56,958, the latter giving an average of L.8 per head of population. The exports during the same years were respectively L.22,195 and L.26,870, or less than L.4 per head of population for 1851; showing a balance of trade against the colony of more than 100 per cent. The shipping has doubled itself within two years. In 1849, 7952 tons arrived in the ports, which had increased in 1851, in consequence of the arrival of the convict-ships, to a gross tonnage of 16,540.

Besides these successful colonies, situated within the great southern or temperate division of Australia, there have been several attempts on the part of the British government to establish settlements on the north and eastern shores of tropical Australia, which require a brief notice. The first attempt was made by Captain Bremer, in H.M.S. Tamar, who, in company with two store ships and a party of military and convicts, established the stockade of Fort Dundas at Melville Island, in Lat. 11. 28. S., Long. 130. 30. E., in Apsley Strait. "This settlement, however, after an existence of four years, was abandoned on 31st March 1829, in consequence of the continued unfavourable accounts transmitted to the home government."\* "The settlement of Fort Wellington was formed by Captain Stirling in H.M.S. Success, on the 17th June 1827, on the N.E. side of Raffles Bay, in Lat. 11. 14. S., Long. 132. 24. E., for the purpose of carrying on a traffic with the Malays, from Macassar in the Celebes, who frequent the coast of Northern Australia, in quest of the *Trepang* or sea-slug. This settlement was abandoned on the 29th August 1829, at a time when the objects for which it was formed were about to be realized."† On the 27th October 1837, a military post, with H.M.S. Britomart as tender, was established at Port Essington, "for the double purpose of affording shelter to the crews of vessels wrecked in Torres Strait, and of endeavouring to throw open to British enterprise the neighbouring islands of the Indian Archipelago." After having struggled unsuccessfully for twelve years to rear sufficient food for themselves, and having lost a number of their men through privations and hardships and the unhealthiness of the climate, the Sappers and Miners finally abandoned the settlement named Victoria on the

\* *Voyage of H.M.S. Rattlesnake.* By J. Macgillivray, vol. i. p. 140.

† MS. Notes of Assistant Commissary-General Kent..

30th November 1849. In January 1847, the staff of a new penal colony, to be called "North Australia," headed by Colonel Barney, R.E., settled on the shores of Port Curtis, on the E. coast of Australia, beyond the Tropic of Capricorn. After five months' occupation, and an expenditure of upwards of L.15,000, the attempt was abandoned.

## S U P P L E M E N T.

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### THE COMMERCE AND FINANCES OF THE COLONY OF VICTORIA, AUSTRALIA.

IF we would refresh our minds by a change from the crowded, struggling, and somewhat monotonous aspect of home society, we have but to turn to the picture presented by our colonies. There, in the fresh young life and ardent industry that are stimulated by the resources and opportunities of a newly settled territory, we witness such a condition of rapid progress and of general well-doing as is not found in older countries. Our colonies of Australasia are prominent illustrations. For the most part they are late in the field, the creations of a few years past ; but they are already of pre-eminent importance in imperial consideration. Few of the marvels of the rise and progress of young societies will approach that of the colony of Victoria, now the chief member of the Australasian group.

The principal production of this colony—that most attractive of all productions—gold, has brought its name conspicuously before us. The arrivals of the gold ships weekly, or still more frequently, already familiarize us with the curious spectacle of bills of lading and cargo of the



precious metal. The colonists speak of their annual gold export by the hundred tons. As much as eight tons weight have arrived in this country by one vessel, and the winds which speed on or detain a few of these well-freighted ships will sensibly affect the great money market of our country. Nothing of this commerce, or indeed of any other, existed in Victoria twenty-five years ago. At that time a handful of settlers had just arrived upon the vacant scene,—a scene that is now pervaded by well-made roads, substantial railways, and the electric telegraph, planted with between thirty and forty incorporated towns, and occupied by more than half a million of colonists. A few huts were then being erected on the site where has since arisen the city of Melbourne, with 130,000 people, and having commercial relations with all parts of the world. The Heads of Port Philip present the lively spectacle of a score or two of ships daily entering for and departing from this great emporium of the south. Already there emanates from the capital a great railway system, which, penetrating the interior in two main directions, presents 270 miles of a substantial, almost extravagant construction, now on the eve of completion at a cost of eight millions sterling. Melbourne is lighted with gas. A million sterling has been expended on its broad and well-made streets, and another million in introducing a supply of fresh water. These streets are regularly watered like those of our own large towns, and some of them are quite as crowded with traffic and passengers as a Manchester or London thoroughfare. There is a combination of the utility, convenience, and enjoyment common to long established town life. There is a parliament house which has been erected at a cost of £400,000, a public

library, already of colossal dimensions, and several theatres, of which the principal is not inferior, in dimensions at least, to the larger of the London houses. The population swarms forth with absorbing interest to its annual horse-races, and as each afternoon draws on, and the impetuous tide of business subsides, the open grounds of the suburbs are filled with the colonial youth intent upon the old English game of cricket. The mail the other day brought us news of 2000 Melbourne volunteers who, attended by a great concourse of spectators, had been for four days campaigning, after home example, upon the grassy plains to the westward of the city. In short, there are all the diversities that usually attend great aggregations of humanity. Melbourne is not less known at the Bank of England and the Hall of Commerce for the gold and the golden fleece which it sends forth in such welcome quantity, than it is appreciated at Cognac for its enormous consumption of brandy.

#### EARLIER HISTORY.

The early history of Victoria differs from that of many other countries in one striking particular. It is perfectly authentic; for you meet every day, in the crowded streets of Melbourne, with those who on the same ground chased the kangaroo over the primeval soil, and who can recount all the gradations of progress, from the antediluvian age that preceded the incorporation of the capital in the year 1843, and the wars of the worshipful councillors, first with the huge forest stumps, and the chasms and river-courses that diversified the streets, and later with the great but contentious questions of the levels and levellings, the sewerage

system, and water supply. While Melbourne was thus vigorously growing into a city, the settlement became a distinct and separate colony on the 1st July 1851, under the royal name of Victoria. It had previously formed a district of New South Wales. Its country, fertile and beautiful in many parts, and teeming with resources, was all but unknown prior to its very recent colonisation. The tide of settlement proceeded in the first place from Tasmania, where the necessities arising from yearly increasing live-stock, and the scanty pasturage, urged the flockmasters to seek additional ground. Across Bass Strait lay a kind of *terra incognita*, from which the veil had been but imperfectly lifted since Swift had peopled the mythic area with his nation of Lilliputians. Rumours, however, were very favourable as to the character of the Northern continent, and especially its pastoral adaptations. The enterprise was something in that early age, although scarcely one day's steam passage now. Small parties went first, accompanied by their live stock; but as the way became familiar, emigration, taking an excited character, acquired the name of the "Port Phillip fever." A thriving settlement was quickly formed, whose prosperity was soon greatly increased by the supplies of capital and population, sheep and cattle, that poured into it from the opposite direction of the Sydney colonists. From a few flocks of sheep in the year 1836, there were at the end of 1851, when the gold-fields broke upon the pastoral quiet of the settlement, between six and seven millions; and from a few bales of wool, upwards of 70,000 bales, or more than twenty millions of pounds weight.

## SQUATTING.

The country is open and grassy to a large extent, a characteristic feature, and almost peculiar to Australia. Even the wooded parts consisted in great measure of what is called open forest land, having large trees growing widely apart, and free from underwood, the entire surface being covered with grass. The sheep cropping this natural herbage, rapidly multiplied, and annually yielded their fine woolled fleeces at a comparatively small cost. Squatting, as this sheep-farming was called, became a favourite and prosperous vocation. It was greatly encouraged by the local authorities, who gave liberal use of the natural pasturage at almost nominal charges, and for some time squatting attracted the chief attention, so that every tract of available pasture-land throughout the colony rapidly found an occupant.

## AGRICULTURE.

Agriculture was comparatively neglected, notwithstanding that large areas of fertile soil existed in many suitable localities, naturally cleared and ready for the plough. Agriculture, indeed, has been doubly checked in this colony, first by the superior attractions of squatting, and afterwards by the engrossing pursuit of gold-mining. Within the last few years, however, there are decided indications of a better progress, and the colonial land laws have been altered (in 1860), so as to facilitate the land selection, and settlement of all parties desirous of becoming agriculturists. The

quantity of land now under crop, about 420,000 acres, is more than double the quantity only four years since. During that interval, a prejudice that Victoria, producing so largely of gold, could never be an agricultural country, has been gradually giving way. The fact that during these years the rival gold-producing country of California has been not only supplying its own agricultural wants, but transmitting its surplus grain and flour to Victoria, has probably helped to dispel an illusion that might have deprived our colony of many a charming and truly English picture of rural industry.

#### GOLD DISCOVERY : ITS IMMEDIATE EFFECTS.

The discovery of the gold-fields comes upon the quiet and steadily forward course of the colony like an avalanche. There is an immense general impetus. According to the phrase of the day, Australia is precipitated into a nation. Forthwith the commerce and finances are upon a scale commensurate rather with a large and populous state than a young colony. But there is also a break-up of old associations, and colonial industry turns itself into new directions. The squatting produce, the wool, and the tallow, which had comprised nearly all the Victoria exports, are now in the second rank, behind the overshadowing gold. With the rapid increase of the live stock, the supply of tallow from these Australian colonies was assuming dimensions important to the commerce of this country. For the year 1850, the quantity sent from Victoria had reached a value of L.132,805 ; but in 1853 it fell to L.13,252 ; and it has never since, in any one year, attained even to half its highest amount. This result may be the less regretted, in

so far as it is due to the demands for food on the part of a prosperous colony and a greatly increased population. From the same cause there has also been, since the gold discovery, a diminution in the number of sheep, which, after attaining to 6,589,953 in 1852, are only 5,578,413 in 1859. And this is the result, too, notwithstanding a very considerable annual importation of the stock from New South Wales. A collateral but less acceptable cause of this decrease was the spread of contagious and fatal diseases amongst the flocks, in consequence of the infected state of the country, caused by the incessant traffic in sheep to and from the large markets at the chief gold-fields. The healthy and the unhealthy were indiscriminately driven to these rough and ready shambles of the hungry digger. A more settled state of the colony, aided by stringent statutes and careful treatment, have since all but rid the colony of these troubles, so that the number of sheep, which in 1856 was little over 4½ millions, is now again on the increase. Cattle and horses have throughout steadily increased, the former numbering now about 700,000, and the latter about 70,000. The annual clip of wool, after a rapid increase, and after attaining for 1854 the unprecedented quantity of 22,998,400 lbs., diminished during several subsequent years. More lately, however, the quantity promises to be maintained, and even increased, as the following results, giving the exports for the year or season ended 31st March, may show:—

Year ended 31st March 1859,	. 21,056,406 lbs. wool.
"              " 1860,	. 22,167,069   "
"              " 1861,	. 23,588,490   "

The heavy clip of 1854, just alluded to, exceeding that of

the two preceding years by two to three millions of pounds weight, was understood to be in some measure attributable to imperfect washing, or to shearing the wool "in the grease" to an unusually large extent, under the difficulties of the time regarding the labour-market. The wool is now generally well got up, to use the technical phrase, and improvements in breeding, to which much attention is now paid, are probably tending to enhance the weight as well as the quality of the fleece.

#### THE VICTORIA GOLD-FIELDS : BALLARAT.

With these preliminary considerations, we shall now turn to the commerce and finances of the colony, as they present themselves after the event of the gold discovery. The great business of gold-digging, which commenced in New South Wales towards the end of the second quarter of 1851, extended into Victoria about three months afterwards. The first place that attracted any general attention in Victoria was Ballarat, heretofore a quiet pastoral locality, 50 miles N.N.W. from Geelong, and about 80 miles westerly from Melbourne. This now well-known locality, although temporarily eclipsed, shortly after its discovery, by the renown of Mount Alexander and Bendigo (now respectively the Castlemaine and Sandhurst districts), has since maintained its repute as the greatest of the Victoria gold-fields. This has been the scene of the discovery of most of the great nuggets of from 50 to 150 lbs. weight, with the history and aspect of which many of us are now quite familiar. Of upwards of one hundred millions sterling of gold already produced by Victoria, Ballarat has

contributed more than one-fourth; and it is not more distinguished for the quantity than it is for the quality of its produce, the gold being almost quite pure just as it is washed out from the drift. Its quality is about  $23\frac{1}{2}$  carats, pure gold being conventionally called 24 carats; and it is worth about 83s. per ounce, being considerably more valuable than our more composite gold sovereign, and therefore worth more, weight for weight, than that highly esteemed commodity.

The miners seem to have early found out the richest fields, partly by aid of a practical sagacity, partly by unwearied activity in "prospecting" as they called it, and experimenting in every likely locality. During the first two years, therefore, the gold produce was comparatively very large, especially during the latter half of 1852, when it was estimated to have been greater than it has ever been since. The Customs returns of gold exported for these years are, however, very defective, as, in the absence of any established system for shipping this new article of the colony's commerce, its conveniently small bulk led to large quantities being daily carried away by emigrants upon their persons, and without any public record, to adjacent colonies and elsewhere. These irregularities gradually ceased, and since 1855, during which year an export duty (2s. 6d. per ounce) was placed upon the gold, the accounts have been kept with much stricter accuracy.

#### IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

These circumstances are to be borne in mind in comparing the imports and exports of the earlier years. The



enormous import figures of 1853 and the succeeding year had been to some extent balanced by the true export of 1852, which is estimated to have been more than double of what it stands in the Customs records. But, taking these records as they stand, they are still sufficiently wonderful. The colony had graduated in its commercial degrees with a steady success up to the end of 1851, after which year comes the effect of the gold. Towards the end of that year, indeed, the gold had already found its way into the export shipments, but only to a comparatively unimportant extent. But in 1852, the imports, which for 1851 had been L.1,056,437, have risen to L.4,043,000, and exports from L.1,423,909 to L.7,451,000; in 1853 they are respectively L.15,842,000 and L.11,061,000; in 1854 no less than L.17,659,000 and L.11,775,000. After these busy years, with of course over-importation and over-trading, there is a relapse in the import trade, illustrating the irregularity that has now supervened upon the quieter but steady progress that formerly characterised the colony. Although the population has since been doubled, the amount of imports for any of the six subsequent years has never reached that of 1854.

#### GREAT EXTENSION OF THE IMPORT TRADE.

Amongst the many marvels of commercial development are the following particulars of some of the articles of import. The miners dealt largely in candle light, and as they did not stand upon trifles in supplying their wants, they had a preference for the fine stearine qualities of candles that were not made in the colony. With a good

"claim," as their small mining areas were called, the precious hours of the night could not be lost, and their deep sinkings were dark at all hours. The importation of candles, therefore, rises from L.1611 in 1850 to L.244,785 in 1855. Although Victoria is a pastoral country, fresh butter was at one time as high as 5s. per pound. The import of butter and cheese, therefore, for the same years, rises from L.660 to L.466,775. Oats, which we heard of at a guinea a bushel in Melbourne, rise in the value of the yearly import from L.2579 to L.594,248, and potatoes from L.2179 to L.316,810. Rice, with the aid of a large inroad of Chinamen, rises from L.1436 to L.135,342. In the direction of luxury, we have L.656 of jewellery in 1850 extended to L.102,620 in 1855. Alcoholic drinks take a very formidable position in the diversified list. The following is the progress which the colonists, with the rapidity of a right good will in their proverbially dry and warm climate, had made between the years 1850 and 1853:—

	1850.	1853.
Beer, .....	L.38,115	L.614,692
Spirits, .....	51,034	1,045,053
Wine, .....	13,795	373,529

#### MAGNITUDE OF THE GOLD EXPORT.

In the list of exports the importance of the gold has dwarfed all the other articles. It comprises about four-fifths in the yearly value of colonial produce, and, although steadily diminishing for some years past, is still nearly L.9,000,000 in annual value. Founding upon an estimate made by the Australian delegates for the International Statistical Congress of last year, I find the value of the

whole of the gold exported from Victoria up to the end of 1860 to be the large amount of L.102,435,072. During the same time, about L.9,000,000 in all have been contributed by New South Wales, where, however, the rate of production is considerably on the increase. Several others of these colonies are also auriferous, but their gold produce unitedly has amounted to less than half a million. Altogether, the Australian gold produce up to the end of last year (1860) is estimated at L.111,640,167.

#### FINANCES : REVENUE AND PUBLIC DEBT.

The colony's public finances were no less expansive than its commerce. The imperial concession of colonial self-government, which the importance of Australia now procured for the different colonies, placed at the disposal of the people of Victoria a public revenue which had quickly advanced from L.300,000 a-year to L.3,000,000. For the years 1850 and 1851 the modest amounts are respectively L.261,000 and L.380,000; for 1852 there was above a million and a half, and for 1853, L.3,202,139. These amounts are exclusive of loans; for Victoria, under her increasing fortunes, is promptly a candidate in the loan market, on the same principle, we must suppose, as that which finds our own people of the largest incomes to be proverbially in debt. Indeed the colonists' ideas were soon in advance of even their great fortune and prospects; for after a perplexing superabundance of income during the years 1852 and 1853, the succeeding year found the colony in debt, and floundering over a "budget" amounting to nearly twice its actual income. In truth, increase and

progress, when at this express speed, cannot be of long duration, and a reaction had already shown itself, which for some years made the revenue stationary, or even retrograde. The present revenue is still about L.3,000,000. The amount seems more than ample for the wants of a society of little more than half a million of people. Nevertheless, Victoria is distinguished already by a considerable public debt. The ambitious young colony has been largely engaged in railway making, and has been profuse in its issue of debentures. "Victoria sixes" on the London Stock Exchange are now counted amongst the best known colonial securities of that mighty world of money.

#### SOURCES OF REVENUE.

The chief sources of revenue are land sales and customs duties, the former amounting to about one-fourth, the latter to about one-half, of the whole public income. The vast areas of each Australian colony have been assumed as the domain of the Crown, and portions of these territories are being periodically sold to the residents as the colony advances in means and population.

This land-fund took a peculiar direction. It was, in a legal sense, crown or imperial property, and was therefore administered by imperial authority, under the name of "territorial revenue," as distinguished from the remainder derived from "taxes, duties, rates, and imposts" on the people, and called "ordinary revenue." This fund, by a sort of compromise between imperial and colonial interests, was expended in assisting the emigration of the poor or labouring classes from the mother country. This was the

system prior to the late concession of colonial self-government. During a short transition interval, one-half of the land proceeds was transferred to the colonial legislatures, the other half being still applied, as before, under the name of "the appropriated moiety." Now, however, all these revenue distinctions have been merged into one "general revenue," all of which is at the disposal of the colonial Parliament.

#### IMMIGRATION POLICY.

But the old policy of promoting immigration into the colony, and particularly that of the working classes, by revenue contributions, still struggles for maintenance under the new political system. The democratic institutions latterly adopted in the principal Australian colonies, including manhood suffrage, have called up instinctive opposition to this policy. It is naturally associated with the employing interest, who seek to supply their labour-market, and who, under the old regime, were all-powerful to that end. On the other hand, the employed classes, who may now be considered predominant, look rather to local expenditure and the enhanced wages for the time being. Victoria, however, after some cessation, during the contest of parties on this question, has just returned to the old idea by an appropriation of L.100,000 for the current year 1861. There can be no question of the benefit to the colony of accessions of useful population, even at the cost of the whole charge of passage-money—about L.15 for each adult. The plan for the present is one of "assisted emigration," by which, on payment in the colony

of a sum equal to about from one-half to one-fourth of the usual fare, on the part of the friends or employers of intending emigrants, the colonial government pays the remainder. A preference is given in these arrangements to females, whose numbers are usually for a long time disproportionate to those of the hardier sex in young and distant colonies, and who are still only in the proportion of less than two females to three males in this colony. There is a happy opportunity of harmonising differences by thus applying the public funds to the immigration of the gentler sex. The male members of families will also be effectually, although indirectly, assisted in their purpose of emigration, and the colony will receive additions not merely of labour power, but of society.

#### TARIFF POLICY.

The proverbial contentions over tariffs have had their course in Australia as elsewhere. The colonies agree to differ, each with itself as well as with its neighbours. Ten years ago the progress in our own country, in giving freedom to commerce, had reached the point of abolishing all privileges to British merchandise in the colonial markets. By imperial act, there were to be no discriminative duties favouring imperial interests, although proposed even by the colonies themselves. Victoria on that occasion took up the spirit of imperial example. A very simple tariff was enacted. The duties were solely for revenue purposes, and they were levied upon a few articles of large consumption, chiefly spirits, wines, and tobacco. Any "protective" operation, with the consequent loss and

misdirection of industrial power, was advisedly avoided. Revenue necessities subsequently added a few articles to this brief list, and the Victoria tariff may be thus set forth: Imports heavily taxed—Spirits, opium, and tobacco. Moderately or lightly taxed—Wines, beer, tea, coffee, and sugar. There was also an export duty of 2s. 6d. per ounce put upon gold, which was imposed in the year 1855, in lieu of the troublesome system of a personal license fee.

#### QUESTION OF "PROTECTION."

The present democratic institutions of Victoria, stimulative as they are to an absorbing and universal interest in public affairs, have developed further discussion upon fiscal policy. One feature in the case is an agitation for "protection." This movement appears to have latterly gained strength; for by the latest accounts a resolution had passed the colonial assembly, to the effect that in any future fiscal legislation the principle of protection should be recognised. This resolution, possibly of some importance to the colony's future, and its intellectual credit, was carried by a vote of twenty-two against twenty.\*

The familiar example of America will prevent our feeling surprised at such a result, although it will not prevent our disappointment. The western and southern states across the Atlantic have long habituated themselves, not always perhaps with entire satisfaction, to the policy of paying thirty per cent. of "protection," in order that the New England manufacturers might derive ten per cent. of profit. This system of sinking three dollars in order

\* First Session of 1861.

to raise one, is a peculiarity of patriotism that Victoria seems envious to imitate. Might we not suppose that these prosperous new countries have a humane wish to compensate their less fortunate competitors of older standing by the adoption of such self-denying ordinances? Are we not to admire that indifference to mere material interests which consents to restrict one's own market, and reduce one's own profits, to buy dear, to sell cheap, and to nurse with maternal care a category of trades and vocations that are made profitable to the respective parties only by the general public compelling itself to pay such extra price as is necessary to make them so!

But there is a still better hope; for we suspect that all this agitation will prove eventually only a little by-play of our promising colony. A disturbing intrusion of common sense will prevent any great deviation, if, indeed, there is to be any at all, into the perplexities of protection. The word has a captivating sound to the toiling husband and patriotic citizen, but the wife and mother will detect with a practical eye the true bearings of the case—the smaller loaf at the same money, the coarser garments, the rough and shaky carriage, the inferior furniture. This is too much to endure for the sake of an idea. There are tides in opinions and affairs. We need not yet feel discouraged with the state of the Victoria tide, still less must we yet believe that our vigorous offspring at the antipodes is to lapse into the dethroned arms of protection.



TABLE I.

*Census of the Colony of Victoria taken on 7th April 1861.*

Males,.....	328,651
Females,.....	211,671
Total population,.....	540,322

Of the total population there were—

In ships, &c.,.....	2,046
Migratory,.....	3,158
Remainder,.....	535,118

Melbourne, the capital town, contained a population of 108,224, which was divided into nine distinct municipalities. By the census of 29th March 1857, the population of Melbourne was 91,905. In 1861 the suburbs, which included six municipalities, added about 17,000, making a total population of above 125,000. That of Geelong, the second town of the colony, was 23,037, being a diminution of 301, since the preceding census of 1857, this result arising from the commerce of the country having increasingly centred in Melbourne.

The population of Sydney, the capital of New South Wales, was, according to this census, 56,470, an increase of 3112 since 1856, while the suburbs contained 36,732; making together 93,202.

The census of April 1861 is the first occasion on which these colonies have taken simultaneous action, in this important subject, with the parent state. This census, it is understood, will be nearly general throughout the Empire. The results, in Australasia, for those colonies that have

taken the census, or have as yet published the results, appear as under:—

New South Wales,.....	350,553
Victoria,.....	540,322
Queensland,.....	80,059
South Australia, about.....	127,000
Tasmania,.....	89,977

TABLE II.

*Yearly Return of the Imports, Exports, Public Revenue, and Population of the Colony of Victoria from 1850 to 1860 inclusive.*

Year.	Imports.	Exports.	Public Revenue.	Population.
	£	£	£	
1850	744,925	1,041,796	261,321	69,739
1851	1,056,437	1,423,909	379,824	83,350
1852	4,043,896	7,451,549	1,577,181	148,627
1853	15,842,637	11,061,543	3,202,139	198,496
1854	17,659,051	11,775,204	3,201,385	273,865
1855	11,568,904	13,469,194	2,658,671	319,379
1856	12,908,937	15,029,944	3,039,375	348,460
1857	17,256,209	15,079,512	3,153,297	463,112
1858	15,108,249	13,989,209	3,039,791	504,519
1859	15,622,891	13,890,473	3,257,724	530,262
1860	15,092,734	12,951,619	3,006,326	548,353

*Revenue.*—The estimate for 1861 was £2,985,350.

*Public Debt.*—The present debt (in 1861) amounts to about £7,000,000. Next year, when the entire railway loan of £8,000,000 has been issued, the debt will be a little over £9,000,000.

*Population.*—The census for 8th April 1861 gave the total population as 540,322, of whom 328,651 were males, and 211,671 females. The diminution, as compared with 1860, is considered to be due to unrecorded emigration overland into New South Wales, particularly of the Chinese.

TABLE III.

*Table showing the Course of Prices in the Colony of Victoria of Articles whose Supply depended, more or less, upon Colonial Production; exemplifying the altered and irregular features occasioned by the Gold Discovery. (The Gold Production in this Colony became a noticable feature towards the end of September 1851.)*

Monthly Average Prices.														Prices in Sep- tember 1851.
Articles.	Per	1850.		1851.		1852.		1853.		1854.		1855.		
		Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	
Hay, .....	ton	£ 5 0 0	£ 3 0 0	£ 6 12 6	£ 3 10 0	£ 6 0 0	£ 3 0 0	£ 6 0 0	£ 3 0 0	£ 6 0 0	£ 3 0 0	£ 6 0 0	£ 3 0 0	
Oats, .....	bush.	0 3 0	0 3 0	0 5 9	0 4 9	0 5 9	0 4 9	0 5 9	0 4 9	0 5 9	0 4 9	0 5 9	0 4 9	
Barley, .....	"	0 3 0	0 3 0	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 4 0	
Wheat, .....	"	0 4 3	0 3 6	0 10 0	0 6 0	0 12 0	0 5 0	0 10 0	0 6 0	0 12 0	0 5 0	0 10 0	0 6 0	
Flour, .....	ton	10 10 0	9 15 0	0 25 0	0 17 0	0 40 0	0 23 0	0 35 0	0 23 0	0 35 0	0 23 0	0 35 0	0 23 0	
Potatoes, .....	"	6 0 0	5 0 0	0 9 0	0 7 0	0 17 0	0 10 0	0 26 0	0 17 0	0 34 0	0 23 0	0 33 0	0 23 0	
Cabbages, .....	each	0 0 2	0 0 1	0 0 6	0 0 2	0 1 6	0 0 1	0 2 0	0 0 1	0 5 0	0 0 1	0 4 0	0 0 1	
Bread, Loaf, .....	# lb.	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 4	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 9	0 1 6	0 1 2	0 1 0	
Fresh Butter, .....	lb.	0 1 6	0 1 0	0 1 6	0 1 6	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 4 6	0 3 0	0 5 0	0 4 0	0 2 9	0 2 3	
Milk, .....	quart.	0 2 0	0 1 0	0 2 0	0 1 0	0 2 0	0 1 0	0 2 0	0 1 0	0 2 6	0 1 6	0 1 0	0 1 0	
Eggs, .....	doz.	0 2 0	0 1 0	0 2 0	0 1 0	0 2 0	0 1 0	0 2 0	0 1 0	0 10 0	0 6 0	0 3 6	0 2 0	
Beef, .....	lb.	0 2 0	0 1 0	0 2 0	0 1 0	0 2 0	0 1 0	0 2 0	0 1 0	0 10 0	0 6 0	0 3 6	0 2 0	
Mutton, .....	"	0 4 0	0 3 6	0 10 0	0 6 0	0 12 0	0 5 0	0 10 0	0 6 0	0 1 0	0 8 0	0 0 6	0 0 6	
Pork, .....	each	0 4 0	0 3 6	0 10 0	0 6 0	0 12 0	0 5 0	0 10 0	0 6 0	0 1 0	0 7 0	0 0 6	0 0 6	
Turkeys, .....	each	0 12 0	0 9 0	0 10 0	0 7 0	0 10 0	0 7 0	0 10 0	0 7 0	0 1 0	0 14 0	0 10 6	0 7 0	

TABLE IV.  
AUSTRALASIA: THE GOLD-PRODUCING COLONIES.  
*Estimate of the Amount of Produce of the Australasian Gold Fields Exported from the different Colonies  
from 1851, the year of discovery, to the end of 1860.*

Year.	Victoria.			New South Wales.			South Australia, and Tasmania, and New Zealand.	General Total, from 4, 6, and 7 columns.
	Official Returns.		Probable Actual Amount.	Per Escorts and Posts.	Probable Actual Amount.			
	Per Customs.	Per Registrar- General.						
1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	
1851	436,777	580,587	845,523	417,587	563,116	.....	1,408,639	
1852	6,135,728	10,899,733	15,899,733	900,368	1,215,684	21,000	17,136,417	
1853	8,644,529	12,600,083	14,100,083	818,141	1,062,989	21,000	15,184,072	
1854	8,255,550	9,568,262	9,568,262	423,094	507,796	21,000	10,097,058	
1855	10,904,150	11,172,261	11,172,261	394,754	481,604	21,000	11,674,865	
1856	11,943,458	11,942,783	11,942,783	534,467	614,164	21,000	12,577,947	
1857	10,987,591	11,046,113	11,046,113	570,284	657,696	62,556	11,766,365	
1858	10,107,837	10,112,752	10,112,752	983,808	1,116,311	74,720	11,303,783	
1859	9,122,037	9,122,702	9,122,702	1,113,740	1,175,358	65,724	10,363,784	
1860	8,624,860	8,624,860	8,624,860	1,367,970	1,436,377	66,000	10,137,237	
Totals,	85,164,517	95,670,136	102,435,072	7,524,213	8,831,095	374,000	111,640,167	

*N.B.*—The probable quantities for 1861 may be assumed thus:—Victoria, £7,200,000; New South Wales, £1,600,000; New Zealand (but quite uncertain as to the Otago production), £393,200; Total 9,198,200.

TABLE V.  
AUSTRALASIA.

*Customs Tariffs of Australia, Tasmania, and New Zealand.*

Articles.	Per	New South Wales.	Queensland.	Victoria.	South Australia.	West Australia.	Tasmania.	New Zealand.
				<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>
SPIRITS Imported:—								
Brandy.....gallon		10 0	The Tariff of New South Wales, excepting the Export Duty on Gold, which has been repealed.				12 0	
Geneva, .....		10 0					12 0	
Rum, .....		7 0					10 0	
Whisky, &c., .....		7 0						
Cordials, &c., .....		10 0		10 0	10 0	12 0		9 0
Perfumed, .....		7 0						
Spirits, Col., distilled from }			The Tariff of New South Wales, excepting the Export Duty on Gold, which has been repealed.				12 0	
Sugar, .....		6 5						
Do. do. from Grain, .....		7 0						
Wine in Wood, .....		2 0		2 0	2 0	2 0	2 0	3 0
Bottle, .....		2 0		2 0	2 0	2 0	3 0	3 0
Beer in Wood, .....		0 1		...	...	...	0 3	0 6
Bottle, .....		0 2		0 6	0 6	4 0	0 6	1 0
Cider, Perry, &c., .....		0 3						
TOBACCO, Unmanufactured, lb.		2 0		2 0	2 0	1 0	2 6	1 6
Manufactured, ...		2 0		2 0	2 0	1 9	2 6	1 6
Snuff, .....		2 0		2 0	2 0	2 6	3 0	3 0
Cigars, .....		3 0		3 0	4 0	2 6	3 0	3 0
Sheepwash, .....		...		...	0 3	...	0 3	...
Opium, .....		10 0		10 0	...	...	...	...
SUGARS, Refined, .....	cwt.	6 8		6 0	6 0	4 0	6 0	9 4
Raw, .....		5 0		6 0	3 0	3 0	3 0	9 4
Molasses, .....		3 2		3 0	2 0	3 0	3 0	9 4
Tea, .....	lb.	0 3		0 3	0 2	0 2	0 3	0 4
Coffee, .....		0 2		0 2	0 2	(4 0) (p. c.)	0 1	0 3
Chicory, .....		0 2		0 2	0 2	...	...	0 3
Hops, .....		...		...	0 2	...	...	...
Malt, .....		...		...	...	1 0	...	...
Dried Fruits, .....		...		...	...	0 6	...	...
Cutlery, Hardware, &c., }				...	...	...	...	...
Candles and Soap, ... }	cwt.	...		...	...	...	...	3 0
Fire-Arms, .....	each	...		...	...	...	...	5 0
Gunpowder, .....	lb.	...		...	...	...	...	0 3
Export Duty:—								
Gold, .....	oz.	2 6		2 0	...	...	...	...

*N.B.*—In Western Australia all goods not specified are charged with an *ad valorem* duty of 7 per cent. In New Zealand, manufactures of Silk, Cotton, Linen and Wool, Drapery, Haberdashery, Hosiery, Millinery, Furs, Hats, Boots, Shoes, Confectionary, and Oilman's Stores, pay a duty of 4s. per cubic foot, measuring outside the packages.







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